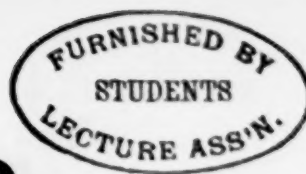


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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 23, 1893.

The Week.

THE more important of the nominations for office sent to the Senate by President Cleveland on Monday leave no doubt of his independence in making them. They came as a complete surprise to the politicians and omniscient newspaper correspondents. The choice of ex-Senator Eustis as Minister to France is particularly eloquent of the President's independence, as it is also of his magnanimity. The Louisianian had no political backing, and his outspoken attack on Mr. Cleveland eight years ago would have made him distinctly ineligible to any office in the gift of the President, if the ordinary rules of the game had been followed. Inasmuch as he was bitterly opposed to Mr. Cleveland on the ground of the latter's independence and efforts to introduce decency into politics, and inasmuch as he more than once in his public life arrayed himself with the lewd fellows of the baser sort in his party, we think Mr. Cleveland's magnanimity has taken a wrong direction in his case. We suppose there is no doubt of his personal qualifications for the French mission, but he has identified himself with a type of politics which his party cannot too soon get rid of instead of honoring. Ex-Chancellor Runyon of New Jersey is of a wholly different stamp, and his choice as Minister to Germany is the restoration to public life of a man whom the Machine politicians of his State long since ceased to have any use for. Mr. Risley of New York, named for the Danish mission, is certified to by Senator Murphy as a man of whom he had never heard. This is an excellent recommendation, as far as it goes, on the principle of the man in the pit who, when a sad actor uttered the words, "Alas, poor Yorick, I knew him!" promptly called out, "That speaks ill for Yorick's acquaintances."

The *Tribune*, which is always a pretty good civil-service-reform paper when the other fellows are in office, said on Thursday, in discussing our consular service:

"What is needed in order to raise the standard of the American consular service is a system of promotions. If President Cleveland, instead of appointing Gen. Collins to the lucrative office of Consul-General at London, had transferred to that post a veteran who had served the Government faithfully and honorably abroad under successive administrations, he would have made a new departure of real significance."

The only weakness in the proposition which the *Tribune* offers, to fill our consular offices by promoting men who have done good service for long years under other administrations, is that we have almost no such men in the consular service. An

examination of the list of United States consuls in office at the close of President Cleveland's Administration (taking the names in the 'Congressional Directory' for December, 1888), shows that of 263 consuls-general and consuls only 66 remained in office—including one consul-general—when the 'Congressional Directory' for February, 1893, at the close of President Harrison's Administration, was printed. On its face this statement would seem to indicate that civil-service-reform ideas did make some impression on the State Department under Harrison and Blaine. But a little further investigation discloses the fact that of the 66 consuls continued in office 43 were men whom the Cleveland Administration found in their places when it came into power. Practically, therefore, the whole consular service under the last Administration was given over to the spoils system. We do not mean to infer from this that President Cleveland and Secretary Gresham are not under any obligation to improve on the methods of their predecessors.

Although a stringency in the New York money market is a familiar enough incident of the month of March, it is very rarely that the stringency is so protracted as it has been in the present month. Ordinarily, the large amounts of currency sent about the 1st of March to the interior centres of trade are returned by the 10th of the month, when merchants have settled their bills. This year the money has not even yet flowed back, and the uncertainty of our banks regarding their resources has led not only to exorbitant prices for call loans in Wall Street, but to a sharp restriction in the accommodation usually offered to local merchants. The situation is thus in many respects peculiar, and its cause is equally singular. We have not yet done with the history of the great grain crop of 1891. Enormous as were the exports of that and the succeeding year to famine-stricken Europe, there was yet left unconsumed in the grain market an exceptionally large supply. The visible supply of the three chief cereals was reported on March 13 as 100,000,000 bushels. This was nearly double the stock of a year ago, and not quite four times as large as that of 1891. An immense amount of this grain is held for sale by the Chicago speculators, most of whom, quite contrary to the assumptions of the anti optionists, are refusing to sell at ruling prices. To "carry" such stocks, money in enormous amounts is needed at the centre of speculation, and the Chicago banks, as might be expected, have not only withdrawn from New York institutions their whole deposit account, but have been borrowing New York money on the best collateral their security-boxes can supply.

The orders which Judges Taft and Ricks of the United States Circuit Court for the Northern District of Ohio have issued in regard to the right of a labor union to order strikes and boycotts, and the right of employees of railways to quit work without due notice to their employers, are of great interest and importance. They bring these very weighty questions before the highest court of the country for final decision. Judge Ricks's orders of Saturday, following on the lines of a previous order by Judge Taft, were issued in an injunction case which was brought by the Toledo, Ann Arbor and North Michigan Railway Company against Chief Arthur of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers. The Railway Company asked for an injunction restraining Mr. Arthur from issuing an order to the members of his organization directing them to refuse to handle the cars of the company because of a difference of opinion about wages. In granting the injunction, Judge Ricks issued an order to Chief Arthur directing him to give notice in the usual way that the by-law or regulation of his Brotherhood which required members of the Brotherhood to refuse to handle the cars of the company in question was not in force or effect against said company. A similar order was issued against Joseph W. Watson, who is Chairman of the Grievance Committee of the Railway Employees. Orders were also issued to Arthur and Watson to file with the Court a copy of the by-law, rule, or regulation of the Brotherhood under which directions to refuse to handle cars were usually issued.

In explaining these orders to some engineers and firemen who had quit work in aid of the boycott on the railway company and had been arrested for so doing, Judge Ricks read a statement which the Labor leaders throughout the country have taken to mean, if sustained, that henceforth railway employees will be compelled to continue to work against their will—that the decisions involve the right of a man to quit work when he chooses. This is a perversion both of the Judge's words and of the facts in the case. All that the Judge says on this point has been said many times before, so far as the abstract merits of the case are concerned. That no body of employees who perform a service involving public comfort and convenience ought to be allowed to quit work in such a manner as to cause great public inconvenience is a point that has frequently been raised. Whether they can do it, and not violate existing common-law rights, is a question about which opinions differ, some authorities believing that they cannot, and others that additional legislation is necessary to restrain them from such action. As for their moral

right to do so, there is nothing in Judge Ricks's opinion which has not been stated in many quarters, and in none with more clearness than in the reports of the New York State Board of Mediation and Arbitration. Beginning with their report of 1887, this Board, which is composed of men who were appointed as friends of Labor, has repeatedly called attention to the need of legislation which should make it impossible for railway employees to quit work without giving notice according to contract. In its special report on the New York Central strike, the Board laid down some recommendations which are almost identical with the statement made by Judge Ricks as to the obligations which ought to be imposed upon railway employees. Judge Ricks holds that there exists legal authority to enforce such obligations, and his decisions will serve the useful purpose of having the question decided once for all. It is noticeable that Chief Arthur declares that he will comply at once with the Judge's orders, and will suspend the law of the Brotherhood under which boycotts are ordered.

One of the declarations which President Harrison made in his message transmitting the Hawaiian treaty, was that the possession of the Sandwich Islands by any other great Power "would not consist with our safety." This view of the importance of these islands to the safety of the United States as a nation is adopted in almost every argument made in favor of any form of annexation, and yet, in the light of facts, can anything be more ridiculous? These islands are distant from California about 2,000 miles. Compare their situation with that of the islands off the Atlantic Coast. New Providence, which may be called the centre of the Bahamas, situated only 160 miles from the Florida coast, is the possession of as great a Power as Great Britain. Bermuda, lying only 580 miles from Cape Hatteras, is a military station of the same great Power. Cuba, lying only 130 miles from Florida, is a possession of Spain; Martinique and Guadeloupe belong to France, and scores of other islands in the West Indies might be mentioned, lying only a few hundred miles from our coast, over which foreign Powers have exclusive control. If the government of an island lying between this country and Europe or Asia must be in the hands of the United States to secure our national "safety," certainly such control is more necessary over the neighboring islands in the Atlantic than it is over a far-distant island in the Pacific. We managed to maintain an efficient blockade of our Southern ports during the rebellion notwithstanding the nearness of sympathetic Englishmen at Bermuda and the Bahamas. We can imagine no conflict in which the United States might be engaged wherein the possession of the Sandwich Islands would add materially to our strength; nor can we conceive any condition of our navy which would render it easier for us

to maintain our authority there against a foreign antagonist than it would be to seize the Islands from any foreign Power which might be in possession of them. Just at present no foreign Power wants them.

The latest budget of news from Hawaii contains some extraordinary utterances by the President of the Provisional Government. He was confident that annexation would be accomplished, as he thought the "United States cannot afford to let us go." But what sort of a people with what sort of capacity for self-government we cannot afford to let go, he naively revealed in saying what he thought would happen should the treaty be rejected:

"Of course, if the unexpected should happen, our only alternative would be a republic. We should find this form of government most difficult to carry on, owing to the mixture of races here and the preponderance of an uneducated vote. *It would necessarily be a government by force.* I have no doubt that resolute men could manage it, but we could hardly hope for public confidence and security under such conditions."

Yet President Dole thinks that Hawaii would make a beautiful American State, since, when asked what form of government he would advocate in case of annexation, he cheerfully replied, "Statehood, undoubtedly."

It was to have been expected that a more satisfactory solution of the Hawaiian troubles would be arrived at under a Democratic President than under a Republican Administration. Those troubles were the direct result of Republican legislation. The free-sugar clause of the McKinley Bill was what made the Americans in Hawaii discover that the monarchy was effete. There can be no doubt that it gave the planters just ground of complaint. Their reciprocity treaty was made on the tacit understanding that free entry of their sugar in this country would remain a special privilege granted to them—a privilege worth bargaining for and obtaining by the important concessions which they actually gave in exchange. All this was pointed out at the time the McKinley tariff was before Congress, and the Republicans were reminded by Mr. Carlisle and others that they were practically riding rough-shod over the treaty rights of the Hawaiians. But what difference did that make? As Commissioner Thurston remarks in his article in the *North American Review*:

"The fact that Hawaii admitted free entry of United States goods, in consideration of a protected market for her sugars, and that the opening of that market to the world practically cancelled the benefit of the treaty to Hawaii, cut no figure in the great game of politics. The fact that in the faith of the continuance of that protection upwards of \$25,000,000 of American capital had been invested in the protected industry, and that the proposed law cut off all protection at one stroke, hindered the passage of the law no more than a fly on the rim of a wheel impedes the progress of the coach."

Now it is precisely the correcting of the evils wrought by the McKinley Bill in this way and others to which the Democratic

party stands pledged, and for which it was put in power. It had no part in that "great game of politics" which played the mischief with the Hawaiians in the first place, and might naturally be looked to for the undoing of that mischief. McKinley was the chief oppressor of the islanders, and next to him is the Sugar Trust. We have before cited the evidence showing how it has taken them by the throat. But this enemy of theirs the Democratic party is also pledged to fight. Mr. Cleveland threw down the gage of battle to this and all other Trusts in his inaugural.

There is something connected with the Harris case more important than the fate of the prisoner, and that is the maintenance of popular respect for and appreciation of the orderly administration of justice. If this be true—and who will deny it?—the scenes enacted in court on Monday must have distressed if not alarmed everybody who believes the orderly administration of justice to be at the very foundation of civil society. Recorder Smyth, therefore, we are sure, will in his calmer moments regret the permission he gave Harris to deliver a speech an hour and a half long, abusing the witnesses and the public prosecutor, and analyzing the evidence against him. We are not too bold when we say that it was a scene without precedent in the history of criminal justice, if we except that great national scandal, the Guiteau trial. We speak as laymen, and under correction, when we ask the Recorder whether the question, "what he has to say why sentence of death should not be passed upon him," is meant, or has ever been meant, in law or propriety, to enable the prisoner to review the entire case and dispute argumentatively the verdict of the jury, the rulings of the court, and the conduct of counsel—or, in other words, to make allegations which could by no possibility operate in arrest of judgment? Is it not true that the question is meant, and has always been meant historically, to enable the prisoner to introduce *new* matter, if he has any, in bar of his sentence or in extenuation of his crime—that is, something which has not been judicially passed on, or which in the forum of morals may constitute a claim to pity? It is true that a prisoner answering this question is always, in common humanity, allowed a certain latitude; but latitude running into irrelevancy an hour and a half long is calculated to bring justice into contempt, and this, we say with great respect, was what happened on Monday, for it converted the court-room into a mass-meeting, of which the crowd outside, with its cheers for the prisoner and groans for the Recorder, was simply an "overflow."

The latest "un-American" practice to suffer exposure is the rule of the Bar As-

sociation that one adverse vote out of five shall be sufficient to exclude a candidate for membership. The patriotic denouncer of the rule is the man who has just fallen a victim to it, the Tammany Senator, Mr. Roesch. He bails his blackballing as really a great personal victory, inasmuch as his exclusion from the Association was "only possible because of an un-American by-law which makes one vote in every five sufficient to blackball a candidate." But the Senator ought to point out what would be the genuine American way of intimating to a Tammany gentleman that other gentlemen did not care to associate with him. Would a clubbing or a ducking be necessary to convince him that his company was not desired? Senator Roesch ought to reflect that if, as he thinks should be the case, the rule of the mere majority were applied to matters of personal intercourse, the usages and safeguards of society would be broken down even in our fair land. According to his doctrine, he would have the right, as a good American, to push his way into a parlor despite the objections of the lady of the house and her daughter, provided he had the consent of the majority vote of the butler, the cook, and the family ashman.

At about the same time that Mr. Gladstone was puncturing the bimetallic windbag in the English Parliament, the German Chancellor was performing the same kindly office in the Reichstag. In Germany, as in England, the bimetallic strength is largely found among the farmers, and it was Count Mirbach and the other leaders of the agrarian Conservatives who asked Caprivi what he was going to do for silver. They had no more definite ideas themselves of what should be done, or even of what they wanted done, than had Mr. Goschen. But they were sure that something ought to be done, and asserted that it was the Ministry's business to find out what. Pressed for a definite proposition as a basis for discussion, they at last agreed to this one: "If Germany were to lead the way towards bimetallicism, the other nations would soon follow." "Then you mean," said the Government, "that we ought to go over to bimetallicism without waiting to see what other countries will do?" "Not at all," replied the German silver-men; "that is not our policy at all; that, we admit, would be very foolish." The retort was obvious that if, by "leading the way," they meant "following others," what they needed first of all was a course in logic, and with that the debate closed.

The furious crowds who fill the courtroom in Paris during the Panama Canal trial and rage against the judge are probably in the main the metropolitan "petites gens," who have to listen to the way in which their savings, which were to build the canal, were divided among the politicians. The small farmers and little people

of the provincial towns have still to be heard from, and which way they will turn nobody pretends to know. When, in 1871, they were disgusted with the ravings and contortions of the Radicals under Gambetta, they put the Royalists in power by great majorities, but since then a new generation of voters has arisen which has seen the Orleanists in collusion with Boulanger. Still, this will hardly weigh against the fact that the Conservatives, or "Right," in the Chambers are the only politicians who have not been touched by the Panama exposures; and the importance of this is indicated by the fact that one of the charges levelled at the Minister of Justice is of an attempt to extort from the wife of one of the culprits testimony implicating some of the Monarchical wing in the Chambers. So that we may witness after the election a violent swing of the political pendulum in the direction, not of monarchy, but of a republic managed by men who would convert it into a monarchy if they dared. The French people are really less prepared to tolerate political corruption than any other in Europe—less, too, than we are here, for the simple reason that they are less familiar with speculation, and rapid accumulation, and the whole apparatus of commissions and "divvies" which speculation brings with it. Very few Frenchmen go into any kind of business with the expectation of making a rapid fortune. Large ventures play comparatively little part in French trade and industry. Most Frenchmen rely on small savings and extreme frugality for independence and comfort; so that the Panama affair is an amazing novelty to the bulk of the population. That so much money could be got out of a corporation by "striking" politicians astonishes the provinces at least. That the crisis is not more serious is doubtless somewhat due to the complicity in the corruption of the great bulk of the rascally newspapers which usually flame and rage in revolutionary times. Their lying puffs and "reading notices" have sealed their founts of indignation.

The death of Jules Ferry is a very serious loss to the French Republicans, as he was almost the only man of real vigor of the old opportunist set who remained unscathed by recent events. His recent election to the Senate, after six years of retirement and of unpopularity such as rarely overtakes a public man, shows to what straits the Republic has been reduced by the Panama scandal. He was hated by the Radicals because of his known readiness to meet disorder with grape and canister, and by the religious world for the truculence with which he pursued the Jesuits and other religious orders, and by the provinces for annexing Tonquin and sending the army to perish in distant rice swamps and jungles. The day he left office he was pursued by a mob to his home, and for a good while afterwards he hardly dared to show himself in the

streets. There is no doubt that the annexation of Tonquin was a terrible mistake, but it was due to the necessity which nearly all Republicans felt, after the overthrow of the MacMahon régime, of doing something to connect the Republic with national glory and expansion, and especially with the glory and expansion of the old colonizing days of the monarchy. But he did not take into account the great change in the national manners which has occurred since the Revolution, and made Frenchmen the most stay-at-home and least enterprising of modern nations. When France sent out her swarms of adventurers to America and India, the population was wretchedly poor, and nearly as prolific as the Canadians. Since then it has become stationary or declining, has got possession of its own soil, and has contracted a passion for small savings and for small certainty rather than for large speculative profits, which has made competition with Germany, Great Britain, and even Italy in fields of foreign venture impossible. It was Jules Ferry's ill luck to be the first to find this out by actual experiment, and it is, perhaps, not too much to say that it killed him. The strain of the last ten years must have been frightful, and probably left either brain or heart unable to bear the excitement of his sudden restoration to power and fame by his election to the Presidency of the Senate. But it will be a good while before France produces his like, for his type of statesman was one in which modern democracies show no tendency to abound—the austere, independent, imperious type, which was represented in England in the last century by the Old Whigs, who were willing to do everything for the people, but not *by or through* the people.

The informal vote in the city of Brussels on the question of putting universal suffrage in the revised constitution—a vote which resulted in a large majority in favor of the project—did not seem to carry much weight with the Prime Minister. The very day after the vote was taken, he made a speech on revision before the Chamber, in which he said that universal suffrage was only "a dream," so far as Belgium was concerned, and that the vote of Brussels in favor of it, "however important it might appear, had not changed his settled convictions on that subject." He made a rather neat point against one of the apostles of the universal-suffrage gospel by citing a speech of the latter's, made no longer ago than 1884, in which it was maintained that, "to make head against the influence and pretensions of the Clerical party, there is but one force—democracy; but it must be an intelligent democracy. Before the suffrage, education is essential." The question is by no means settled, and Monday's despatches reported the intention of the Brussels workingmen to go on a general strike if universal suffrage is not granted.

"GOOD CHARACTER AND COMPETENCY."

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S announcement, in an answer to an office-seeker, that, in the light-house service, it is and has been the policy of his Department "to encourage and insure a high standard among the light-keepers by retaining them in the service during competency and good behavior, and by promoting and transferring them to better stations as a reward for good service," and that "no light-keeper will be disturbed by him in his official position merely because of his political opinions," is a very valuable and suggestive utterance. If the State Department could say the same thing with regard to the consular service, we venture to assert that it would be worth more to the safety, honor, and welfare of the United States than six ironclads of the latest pattern and containing all the modern improvements. In fact, we doubt if any number of ironclads would remove the discredit and distrust brought on the American name in foreign countries by the character of our present consular service. We say nothing about the damage done to our commercial relations by it, because, so long as we pass McKinley bills, and make hatred by foreigners a crown of glory to our statesmen, there is no use in blaming our consuls for not pushing our trade abroad. The reason Secretary Carlisle gives for permanence in the light-house service is applicable almost literally to the consular service. He says:

"The great number of light-keepers employed, and their isolated situations, prevent anything like constant overseeing of their work; and a faithful performance of their responsible duties, involving the safety of a vast amount of property and the number of lives entrusted to their care, depends upon the good character and the competency of the keepers themselves."

It is true that no lives are lost by consular incompetency, and perhaps it might be said no property; but the good name and fame of the United States people and Government, political, commercial, and social, is largely dependent on the character and competency of the consuls, and, like the light-house keepers, their work is done in isolated situations, remote from the observation of the American public. But in truth the reasons for keeping good light-keepers and good consuls in office are applicable to all branches of the public service. Business is business, whether it be public or private business. Any distinction between subordinate offices on the score of politics is as absurd in the public as it would be in private service. If a railroad corporation were to treat conductors' places as "spoils" and brakemen's as permanent, it would excite general merriment.

The notion, too, that there is something "practical" in using the offices to reward party service received a great shock in 1884 and in 1888, and ought to have received its deathblow last year. Politicians might in 1880 have wagged their wise heads over the folly of the "theorists" in supposing

that party organization could be maintained without spoils, but since Mr. Cleveland won the Presidency in 1884 without having a single office-holder working for him, and Mr. Blaine lost it when every office-holder was working for him, and since a similar thing occurred in 1888 and in 1892, it is time that we heard no more of this folly. Office-holding competency, secured by the ordinary business methods, is the winning card for every party, as now plainly appears.

The importance attached to offices as a means of rewarding "workers" by politicians relates, in truth, rather to the nomination than the election, for it is the former rather than the latter which mainly occupies their minds. To "get the delegates," as Hill said, is the chief object of their ambition, and, in their estimation, the thing which best proves their power or talent. About winning the election they concern themselves only in a minor degree, as something which no one State can wholly control. It is in securing the delegates that office or the prospect of office is most useful. It is usually in order to get delegates that offices are promised, and as a reward for getting them that offices are generally bestowed, for the contributions of the office-seeking class to the victories at the polls are comparatively small. As Mr. Cleveland has won the election without "getting the delegates," having left that sweet triumph to glorious "Dave" Hill, he can now go on and break up nearly all the great traditions of the spoils system without fear of consequences. The announcement that tenure in any branch of the non-classified service will depend on "good character and competency," breaks up one of them, and the worst.

But there remains another which he can now attack, and, if the news from Washington be correct, is attacking—that, namely, which treats office-seeking as public business. This notion, which President Harrison encouraged by a sort of manifesto after his inauguration, has probably done more to produce the quadrennial rush at Washington than any other one thing. Every office-seeker goes to Washington now with the idea that he has a right to be heard about his application, or, in other words, that the President, under his oath of office, owes him, the office-seeker, a portion of his time and attention. This is a pure hallucination, and if Mr. Cleveland can dissipate it, he will not only clear the administrative machine of a great encumbrance, but save thousands of poor men from expense they cannot afford, as well as from torturing anxiety. An application for an office, and especially for an office which is not vacant, is not in any sense public business. It is the private business of the applicant, and he has no more right to claim the President's attention for it in a personal interview than for a patent potato-peeler or incubator.

Another hallucination, almost equally

mischievous, is the notion that the body of office-seekers who go to Washington about this time are, or in any sense represent, the American people. They have been taught to think that each of them has the same claim to the Presidential ear as the 5,500,000 Democratic voters would have could they collect in the White House in reception hours; and that, if they are snubbed or denied a hearing, some sort of violence is done to the democratic principle. The truth is, that the whole of the President's time and ability is due to the millions who do not go to Washington, and that the thousand office-seekers who do go and take up the President's attention are committing a fraud on the rest of the community, at which he in listening to them in a certain sense connives. Their need of office and desire for it are no more a public concern than their need of or desire for a new suit of clothes. If these elementary distinctions could be put on paper by some competent officer and distributed among visitors to the White House, it would do the best work of political evangelization that this generation has seen.

STATE AND LOCAL TAXATION.

THE report of the Joint Committee of the New York Legislature on the subject of taxation is a very thoughtful and well-considered treatise. We have had Tax Commissions before now composed of experts, not members of the Legislature, who have made reports as intelligent as this, but we cannot recall any committee, resting under the responsibility of legislation as well as of investigation, which has done nearly so well. The Commissions always recommend an abandonment of the attempt to tax invisible and intangible things and personal property which has the power of flight and escape. Legislative committees have always heretofore recommended more drastic measures to find the invisible things, and severer penalties for the concealment of them. In other words, the economists have always advised against the general property tax, while the lawmakers have until now always insisted upon it in the strongest terms. It would seem that the long chase after a will-o'-the-wisp in the matter of taxation had been abandoned. To speak more properly, it would seem as though the Legislature was willing at last to make the laws conform to the facts of the case, for the general property tax, although theoretically in force in this State, is not so in practice, and has not been for many years. The Committee does not in terms recommend the exemption of personal property, but it proposes a new system which, if adopted, will almost certainly bring about that reform. The language of the report on this subject is as follows:

"We confess a considerable change of heart from the opinions at first entertained by us when we say that the proposition to relieve personal property from taxation presents a

problem which we are well satisfied is worthy of careful study, but to which we do not feel fully warranted in giving our present assent further than in the direction recommended."

Such language would never have been employed by a legislative committee unless public opinion had undergone a radical change. Undoubtedly new conditions have helped to bring about this change. The payment of the State debt and the completion of most of the costly public edifices have brought us near to the possibility of carrying on the State Government without any levy on the counties. Prior to 1880 all the State revenue, except a small sum derived from invested funds, was obtained by assessment on the counties. The State passed a law prescribing how the valuations of property should be made for purposes of taxation. Then it fixed the percentage necessary to meet the State's expenses, and directed the county officers to pay the sums named to the State Treasurer. In 1880 the Legislature took a leaf out of the Pennsylvania system and gained a certain amount of revenue independently, by taxes upon the dividends of corporations, upon collateral inheritances and some other things, which could be easily collected without the intervention of county officers. The law of 1880 has been amended from time to time until now it produces about one-half of the sum required for State purposes. The aim of the Committee is to establish a system which shall yield the whole of the State revenue without any property tax. The Committee say that so large a gain is not to be expected in a single year. They propose certain changes looking to the ultimate realization of this project which they think will yield an additional \$4,000,000 at once and eventually the whole amount required for State purposes.

Whenever the State revenue shall be derived entirely from sources other than the counties, the Board of Equalization will be abolished and there will be no obstacle to what is called "local option." It cannot make any difference to Erie County how Albany County raises money for local purposes. It cannot make any difference to the State at large how New York county raises money for her own use. Whatever she obtains she must get in pursuance of law, but she and all the other counties should be allowed a choice among certain prescribed methods, and will be if this system takes root. The Committee say that local option means the exemption of personal property, first by one county and then by another, each one striving to attract such property or to prevent others from drawing its own away. This is a fair supposition. Hence, if the Legislature adopts the Committee's recommendation, we shall know that it has given its sanction indirectly to the principle of the exemption of personal property.

Looking for new sources of State revenue, the Committee has suggested, among other things, a tax on mortgages, coupled

with a proviso that such mortgages shall be exempted from local taxation. This plan seems to us unobjectionable. Theoretically, mortgages are taxable now for both State and local purposes. The maker of the mortgage (the one who owes the money) has the right to deduct the amount from his personal property liable to taxation; but this is a barren right in most cases because personal property is not listed for taxation. The change proposed by the Committee is rather as to the means of collecting the mortgage tax. It offers a commission of one per cent. to the local tax officers on all moneys so collected. This will stimulate them to search the records and see that no one who ought to pay the tax escapes from it. The tax proposed is very moderate, being only one half of one per cent. In order to make this provision effective, the present exemption of mortgages held by savings banks and life insurance companies ought to be repealed. There is no good ground for this exemption. All these people (the depositors and the insured) are forehanded, and they ought to pay some part of the public expenses. Any class who can get rid of a tax by using a catch-word will do so, naturally, and it happens that an abundance of catch-words is handy for this purpose. What the savings banks need is not exemption from the taxes which other people pay, but a relaxation of the stubborn rules enacted by the State which restrict their investments. The mortgage tax always brings up the question whether the burden of it falls on the borrower or on the lender. This point has never been satisfactorily determined by economists, although the weight of authority seems to favor the opinion that it falls on the borrower. If this is the correct opinion, there is no reason for exempting either savings-bank mortgages or life-insurance mortgages from a tax to which other mortgages are subject.

The Committee recommends also the taxing of the capital stock of foreign corporations doing business in this State on that portion of their capital employed here. This is entirely just. Corporations which pay taxes directly to the State ought, however, to be exempt from local taxation except on their real estate—this by way of simplification of the tax system. It is possible, of course, to make the State tax high enough to equalize the burden. The present double-barrelled system of taxing corporations ought to be swept from the statute book whatever else is done or not done. The recommendation that manufacturing corporations, which are now exempt from tax on their *capital stock*, shall be taxed in that way, is open to more serious question. The principle upon which this exemption was originally made was the same as that which applies to other personal property of a flighty character. If it can get away and establish itself in another State where it is exempt from taxation (Pennsylvania, for

example), it is best not to offer it that inducement to move.

"A POINT IN JOURNALISM."

THE *Boston Herald* discusses at some length, under the above heading, in answer to a correspondent, the question whether a "great newspaper" ought to print accounts of prize-fights. The correspondent objects to such reports because their influence is "demoralizing," and "stimulates young men to cultivate the brutal instincts," because prize-fights are immoral and illegal, and, finally, because he dislikes to let his family see the reports of such contests. The *Herald* exposes itself to such criticisms more than most other newspapers in the country, mainly, paradoxical as it may seem, owing to the goodness of its editorial articles. That is to say, the observations of the editor on the questions of the day, moral, social, political, and religious, are for the most part so sensible, well informed, and so elevated in tone and temper, that people of taste and cultivation are seduced into subscribing for it as a good family paper, and are then disappointed and even shocked to find that its news columns are very much like those of the *Boston Globe* and *New York World*—that is, contain, for the most part, elaborate and embellished records of contemporaneous crime and folly. As a general rule, the newspapers which most carefully explore the sewers and garbage-boxes of society adapt their editorial homiletics to the "finds" served up by their reporters. The leading articles are addressed, frankly and without disguise, to readers to whom life is largely made up of rapes, suicides, murders, adulteries, fights, swindles, forgeries, elopements, parricides, and falls of pastors. The writers speak not in the character of moralists or philosophers or economists, but of jolly good fellows who are themselves out on a spree, and sympathize keenly with those whose opportunities of seeing the seamy side of human nature have been scantier than their own.

The defence of the *Herald* contains nothing new. It has been made before by the same paper, but it is a defence which can never become stale and will always repay examination. It says, in the first place, that although reports of prize-fights may be unfit reading for the "children of tender years," or for "ladies," or for the "refined classes generally," and although such fights have been made illegal because they are immoral and brutalizing, and are, in short, "evil and wrong," yet a "great newspaper"—meaning a newspaper with a large circulation—cannot avoid printing them. Why not? Because "life is made up of contests," "in politics, in the bar, and in the forum," and because contests are what most interests people of all classes, and because it is a matter of careful observation that when a paper con-

tains a report of a prize-fight, it is the first thing that passengers of all classes read as they come to town to their business in the morning—"the middle and the more wealthy and cultured classes" as well as the others. "The newspaper," says the editor, "in treating of this topic, starts with this as a fact. Why does it exist? It exists because of an element inherent in human nature."

The trouble with this argument is that it proves too much. If it has any force at all, it covers all obscene literature as well as reports of prize-fights. A report of an indecent divorce case would be read in the cars in the morning by probably twice the number of people who read the reports of a prize-fight, for the women would read it as well as men, and, if they did not read it on the train, would very likely carry it home with them for private perusal. "The element in human nature," too, which demands obscene literature, is about twice as strong as the interest in "contests" of all kinds, physical and mental. Why, then, do the law and public opinion condemn and prohibit the publication and sale of indecent literature? Simply because its influence on young and old is unhealthy, degrading, and brutalizing, "the element in human nature" notwithstanding. What the influence of reports of prize-fights is may be readily inferred from the character of prize-fighters and of the company which witnesses their contests. It consists almost always of the offscourings of human society—gamblers, thieves, drunkards, and bullies. The sprinkling of betting men who have lawful occupations which is sometimes found among them, does not change their complexion. The pugilists themselves, too, are generally persons whose manners and morals are a disgrace to our civilization; but as they retain the human form, seeing them pummel each other out of shape, amid the yells and oaths of a band of surrounding ruffians, must to any man, young or old, make human nature seem a cheaper, viler thing than he had previously considered it.

It is for these and half-a-dozen other similar reasons that the law of most civilized communities has prohibited prize-fights. But the law is everywhere imperfect in not also prohibiting newspaper reports of them, for it is these reports, more than anything else, which keep them going. It is the notoriety given by the newspapers to the pugilists and their doings which produces each successive crop of them, and keeps alive the depraved interest in their contests. The silence of the press about them would do more in one year to suppress these contests than the Sheriff and police can do in ten. It is the newspapers which make popular heroes of such brutes as Sullivan and Corbett and "Squire Abingdon," the poor creature who has just ended his career of vice and extravagance as a general "bottle-holder" of all the leading ruffians of the ring.

The plea set up by the Boston *Herald*, that there is some sort of obligation resting on "a great newspaper"—that is, a newspaper of large circulation—to publish pugilistic reports, which does not rest on newspapers of small or restricted circulation, is a *reductio ad absurdum* of the claim of complete freedom from moral responsibility to the community, which has long been the bane and disgrace of the press. If this responsibility exists at all, of course the larger the circulation the greater the responsibility is. If a publication have an evil influence, the wrong of it is in the direct ratio of the number of people it reaches. There is nothing in the modern world more curious than the attempt, and in some degree successful attempt, of newspaper proprietors to claim for their business an exemption from the moral jurisdiction under which every other business is carried on. A doctor who defended his practice of abortion by alleging the large demand for it; the lawyer who gloried in chicane and pettifoggery by pointing to the large number of his clients; the bookseller who excused his obscene-literature department by proving that its sales brought in more money than all the others; the landlord who declined to eject his brothel-keepers, showing that they paid higher rents than any other class of tenants—would be greeted with mingled merriment and execration. But a newspaper proprietor, whose trade always includes the maintenance of a chair of moral and social philosophy, when charged with fostering a debased and debasing curiosity among all classes, with diffusing vile tastes among the young, and with discouraging good literature and intellectual interests, puts in the brothel-keeper's and faro-banker's defence—that he is meeting a widely felt want—and then rests his case.

THE PROBLEM OF SMALL LIBRARIES.

THE seal of the newly fledged city of Quincy, Mass., bears the motto "Manet," as if in pleasantry, for the charter was a distinct and even noteworthy innovation. Nor has the innovating spirit exhausted itself in the direction of municipal reform. Quincy has a public library, a memorial foundation, of which the twenty-second annual report is before us, with Mr. Charles Francis Adams's name at the head of the undersigned trustees. The building was calculated for the accommodation of 20,000 volumes, and last year it gave shelter to 19,000. The trustees dismissed the idea of an enlargement of the building, and resolved upon the only other possible solution of the problem, a diminution of the books. They considered the fact of Quincy being a suburb of Boston, some eight miles distant and easily accessible, and resolved that their Thomas Crane Public Library should not attempt to compete, for the sake of the scholarly few, with the great collections in the metropolitan

centre. They would therefore discard such works as would not naturally be looked for in a suburban library; such as experience showed to be but seldom or never consulted; such as required too much space in proportion to the frequency of consultation—like public documents; and "all duplicates and books of ephemeral interest." They fixed the normal size of the library at 15,000 volumes, and contemplate a perpetual winnowing and renewal within this figure, constituting the collection of "all the standard works in the language, and a good assortment of practical treatises and of the best works of reference."

The choice of 15,000 as a maximum was determined by the belief of the trustees that this number is "within the limit of reasonable catalogue work"—in other words, as we infer, within the resources of the Crane Library. The necessity of frequent renewals of the printed catalogue in consequence of the disappearance of books in the reducing process is obvious; but this is not the only expense. The trustees aim to sell the catalogue, "irrespective of cost, at a price so low as to put it within the easy reach of any one wishing to use the library." Their idea appears to be that the library, being thus introduced into the family, will be more used than upon the ordinary condition of going to the library to consult the catalogue, and that "a people's working and educational institution" will result.

Whatever may be said in support of this policy, we do not expect it to find favor with librarians, and it seems to us not a solution but a postponement of the problem. In carrying it out, the trustees will have a greater responsibility and a greater care than they imagine. It is easy to put away, by a broad rule, duplicates and whole classes like public documents; but when it comes to passing upon works of ephemeral interest and works not often called for, one needs to be a very broad-minded and a very well-informed trustee, with plenty of leisure. There are degrees of value even in what is ephemeral, and minds capable of comparison and reflection will often gain as much by studying the taste and mode of thought of a previous generation as by familiarizing themselves with those of their own. Such a comparison ought not to be confined to "standard works." And again, the mass of readers and the thoughtful and studious few in any given community cannot fairly be offset in a numerical equation. Fifty-six per cent. of the books taken out of the Crane Library in 1892 were fiction, adult and juvenile. Who can doubt that the greatest service to the public was rendered by supplying the borrowers of the nineteen per cent. in the categories of history, general literature, arts and sciences, travels, biography, poetry, religion, and education? And who knows whether the well thumbed or the dusty and uncut volume contributed more to the formation of individual character

or to the ultimate welfare of Quincy or of mankind?

We leave it to experts to pass upon the Quincy policy on the score of economy, and to contrast it with that governing the expansion of the branches of the Boston Public Library, among which the Crane Library may before many years be enrolled by annexation. We think it self-evident that to fix an arbitrary limit to the library and to make room for the new books by getting rid of the old is to put a damper on public spirit. People will not offer to give books which may be rejected at once or after a few years, and the motive for additional benefactions to the building or the sustentation-fund supplied by the sight of vigorous growth and cramped accommodations and insufficient service will be destroyed. This is the most serious objection to the policy initiated by the trustees. Furthermore, if the giving of books such as the library would not be justified in buying is discountenanced, there will be a general falling off in the quality of such gifts; and, finally, the library will be denied its share in the custody of the rarer works accumulated in the neighborhood of Boston. A catastrophe might any day overtake any one of the metropolitan libraries in which the trustees would concentrate these treasures. Such risks of total destruction should be distributed.

But there are practical difficulties in the way of the trustees. To prescribe the number of volumes is to entail a constantly diminishing number of works and authors. Twenty-three per cent. of the volumes called for in 1892 were periodicals, and we presume the Library binds its current sets. The yearly addition from this source alone must be considerable, and will tend more and more to restrict the tract open to winnowing and renewal, unless the heroic remedy is applied of emptying the shelves of the early volumes of *Harper*, the *Atlantic*, the *Century*, *Littell*, the *Nation*, etc., etc. Moreover, the question arises, Are editions in one volume or in many to be preferred in the case of prolific writers or the larger books of reference? Clearly, by total limitation and by the removal of duplicates, a premium is put on multiplying the volumes in the interest of the greatest number of readers. In the case of fifty standard authors in fiction, poetry, history, science, politics, and economics, with a good proportion of American writers, we have easily reckoned up an average of fifteen volumes apiece. There is an edition of Browning, for example, in fifteen. Would the trustees reject the gift of it because they have the same matter in fewer volumes? Would they discard the latter in favor of the former, and in general would they take the ground that a variety of editions differing in completeness, in critical value and mechanical accuracy and attractiveness is not to be tolerated? Must one read of Lincoln in Herndon's two and not in

Hay and Nicolay's ten volumes? May one not have the benefit of both? If they have not all of a set—of Dickens's 56 and G. P. R. James's 61, for instance—will they decline voluntary accession to it; in other words, will they hold that the public need do no more than sample an author?

In their reference department, will they insist on Webster in one volume, or will they keep it together with the 'Century Dictionary' in six and the 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' in fourteen volumes? In the contest between this and the circulating department, which shall have the preference? Shall the fifty to sixty volumes of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' be gratefully accepted from Citizen X, or be declined with thanks because it would debar as many one-volume authors? So with the increasing "series"—of epochs, heroes, men of letters, rulers, reformers, and the like. So with the uncurrent volumes of the Quincy Directory, 'Whitaker's Almanac,' the 'Statesman's Year Book.' All these must crowd out a large number of works of the most diversified and many of a superior kind, and help along to a condition in which nothing more can be given away by the trustees and nothing more taken in, or else their magic 15,000 must perforce be exceeded. When that time comes, their duties will certainly not be onerous, and the cost of cataloguing will be reduced to a minimum, but meanwhile their labors are likely to be severe. The process will be hastened if books not in the English language are to be admitted; but, for aught we can discover to the contrary, the Quincy public is expected to go to Boston not less for its foreign literature than for its public documents.

We make these criticisms without denying that, as a library of 15,000 volumes may be founded at one stroke by a judicious selection that will practically exclude rubbish, so an old library may and ought to be protected against the intrusion of poor stuff not worth housing. But it is better, we believe, to overrate rather than underrate the intelligence of the local public, to consult its convenience upon the spot to the fullest possible extent, in purveying for it to err on the side of freedom and "natural selection," and to make the library a means not only for the diffusion of knowledge, but for the promotion of public spirit.

THE JUBILEE MASS AT ST. PETER'S.

ROME, February 20, 1893.

LONG before daylight yesterday the steady rumble of carriages going towards St. Peter's could be distinguished; and those who arrived at this early hour on the great Piazza, found it already invested by the municipal guard and the bersaglieri, who formed a cordon on the outer side of the obelisk, permitting only those to pass who were provided with tickets for the church ceremony. The presence of the King's troops to keep order at the very door of the Vatican is not the protest against Papal pretensions one might at first suppose it, for one of the first articles of the Statute proclaims the Roman Catholic religion that of the State,

and as such to be protected and assisted by King and Government.

The doors of St. Peter's remained closed till seven, so the earliest arrivals (at 4:30) remained on the steps of the church, pressing as near as possible to the doors, so as to have easy access to the tribunes of reserved seats, or (for those who had only tickets) for standing room near the altar. It was an unusually motley crowd for a religious function. One is usually notified to wear black, and the women are required to cover their heads with veils, according to St. Paul's injunction; but only those distinguished by admission to the reserved seats were kept to this rule; so one saw pilgrims in every variety of national costume, where such still existed, ladies from the hotels in travelling garb of different fashions and colors, ambassadors to the Holy See in full uniform with all their decorations, and country people from the Castelli Romani in Sunday finery of brightest hues. An immense number of tickets had been distributed, besides which four thousand have since been declared to have been forged. Between the opening of the doors at 7 A. M. and 8:30, the immense space in St. Peter's was filled to every corner; every point of vantage on the side of the Papal monuments and the corners of the bases of the columns had been occupied. The guards at the pilgrims' door, to which an immense green ticket directed them, seeing still a great concourse of pilgrims pressing towards them, and fearing the Pope's procession from the Vatican to St. Peter's might be impeded by this continuous flow of people, had the unfortunate idea of closing this door and posting a placard on it inviting pilgrims to enter at the one to the left destined for the public. This caused much confusion by the hurried rushing from left to right by the crowd on the steps, and many fell and were trampled on and hurt; besides which, the church being as full as safety permitted, this door was also soon closed, and it was then that among the pilgrims who had come from afar there was "weeping and gnashing of teeth." A master of the ceremonies came out and arranged that some might enter by a private door further on, but as many as 25,000 ticket-holders remained shut out, and may count themselves as those foolish virgins who slept late instead of trimming their lamps.

We congratulated ourselves on having been more provident. The sun was rising in all its glory in a luminous, cloudless sky as we left our dwelling at a little past seven, and hailed one of the string of returning cabs which, in two rows of going and coming, reached from the Piazza di Spagna to the Vatican. There was a hum of voices everywhere on our way. One could not fail to perceive that the day was full of significance—those who care for quiet ardently hoped that it might end peacefully. The civil authorities had evidently taken every precaution that there should be no cause of provocation on their side, and had rigorously suppressed all counter-demonstrations and processions with banners or inscriptions. It was feared that the pastoral letters of the new cardinals dwelling on the spoliation of the Holy See, which had been telegraphed in part to the Italian newspapers from England, might lead to provocation. It is certain that an immense circulation of pilgrims in Rome is always a source of danger to the peace; for as they are people who bring little into the revenues of the country, they are not favorably regarded either by the shopkeepers, who complain of having done little or no business this winter, or by the hotel-keepers, who, if they lodge them, have to do so on special terms. Moreover,

there is a class here only too glad of rows, hoping that some good may come of any change.

It was easy to pass through the ranks of bersaglieri and to mount the steps, but even to get into the peristyle of St. Peter's there was some difficulty and much pushing. An Italian crowd is always a good-humored one, and there is generally a great regard for good manners and very little rough hustling. Our tickets taken and the doors passed, the church seemed already very full—fuller than we deemed it possible it ever could be. A deep line of people crowded the central aisle through which the *guardia nobile* kept a passage clear for the procession and for people of distinction to get to their tribunes. We determined to see the ceremony of the mass itself, rather than the procession, and pressed forward beside the side chapels past the sacristy till we arrived at the wing to the left of Bernini's bronze canopy above the high altar; and here we decided to remain, if possible. Among the tribunes erected for reserved seats was one especially labelled for the Pecci family—the family of the Pope. The stalls for the ambassadors were behind the high altar; before them were stationed the principal pilgrimages, with their respective banners. The balcony opposite was occupied by the nuns, too high above the crowd to be separately distinguishable; even the narrow passage within round the dome was full of spectators, who must have seen as through the wrong end of a telescope. The choristers occupied another gallery. We let ourselves go with the current, and were soon carried as near as we were likely to get to the ceremony. We found ourselves among priests, nuns, divinity students, and Italians from the provinces, all very determined to see all they could and to make their best of this opportunity to receive a papal blessing. There was still an hour and a half to wait, and every one hoped by pressing forward to get as near as possible to the vacant space kept open for the procession.

At the sound of the first cannon at half-past eight, the multitude knew that the Holy Father was on his way, and every one tried to get his neighbor's place in front. Some of the English ladies came provided with little stools to stand on, much to the discomfort of those behind them; but the general determination to see, and the utter indifference to the courtesy which is such a characteristic of the Italian nation, made it impossible for them to make use of this rather unfair advantage. Already the surging of the crowd filled many with alarm; the priests and nuns were evidently used to it on such occasions, and the divinity students were enjoying it, and were making jokes all the while, while their father directors were inciting them to fresh efforts to get in front, and gave them the example by a very adroit use of their elbows. The people from the provinces, however, were frightened, never having been in such a wedge; and one short, stout Venetian gentleman lost his temper and his courage, and, abusing all around in strong language, he advised his wife to go ahead by any means. His son, a square-built boy of fourteen, was fighting and butting with his head, which seemed as hard and round as a cannon-ball. One young peasant girl began weeping with terror at the roughness of her neighbors; we tried to protect her, but she soon went away altogether. I saw one energetic country-woman fighting her way into our midst, talking and apologizing as she went. She got beside me at last, and gave me the benefit of her confidences. She had come on foot into Rome

that morning, a walk of two hours, and had been on the steps of St. Peter's when the doors opened, so she had been lucky enough to get an excellent place quite in front beside an English lady, who, after a time, pulled out a little bottle of strong-smelling stuff—phenic acid, she supposed; the strong odor made her faint, and so she had to go out and relinquish her excellent place, but she was determined to see the Pope and receive his blessing. Pio Nono had blessed her, Leo XIII. should bless her, and then she should live and die content.

We envied the possessor of the smelling salts. The heat became excessive, the pushing almost unendurable, while people were getting angry and rude to each other, regardless of the place. At last a shout, which spread through the crowd and continued for some minutes, greeted the entrance of the Holy Father into St. Peter's. The enthusiasm was extreme: arms were raised, handkerchiefs, caps, and hats waved, and every one shouted; "Long live Leo XIII.! long live the Pope! long live Pope Pecci!" (the country people seem to call him by his family name). The procession took three-quarters of an hour to arrive at the high altar. Expectation had been strained to the utmost in our portion of the crowd before the *flabelli* appeared round the corner of the great pilasters supporting the dome. The acclamations sounded again, excitement was at its highest pitch as the pale, emaciated figure of Leo XIII. was borne along in the *sedes gestatoria*, blessing the multitude as he passed. He seemed even more transparent than usual in his shining white and gold robes, and his movements betrayed great weakness and fatigue. The acclamations continued until he had taken his place at the high altar and the silver trumpets from above had commanded attention to the mass. We could just see the Pope and his cardinals and the ceremony of putting on and taking off vestments and the change of the mitre, but we could hear nothing. The Pope's voice, which is unexpectedly sonorous considering his frail appearance, was entirely lost under Michael Angelo's great dome. We were told that the new cardinals had been permitted to wear their red robes for this special occasion; the others were in violet, as is usual in Lent. Cardinal Vaughan's erect figure and imposing presence was very observable.

After the first words of the mass my neighbors continued to talk quite loud again, and a priest behind me, putting his two hands on my shoulders and using me as a wedge, tried to get forward, calling to the students under his care to follow. I turned upon him in anger, with reproaches for his forgetting the holiness of the place and the solemnity of the occasion, not to speak of the example to his young men. He looked pained and embarrassed at being thus lectured in comprehensible Italian in the presence of his flock, and at once desisted from making free with my shoulders, after excusing himself by a "You will understand that we want to see, and you are taller." The students had not even brought their breviaries; they evidently regarded this mass as a sight to enjoy, and assumed that they would easily be absolved for any carelessness on such a day. The most solemnly impressive moment was the elevation of the Host. As the Holy Father knelt before the altar with raised hands, the sun was pouring down upon him in two columns of brilliant light from the windows in the apse, making the light beyond seem almost gloom. Bernini's bronze twisted columns framed in the picture of the brilliant altar, the white Pope, and the red and violet cardinals standing around him. He was evidently much

moved and with difficulty rose from his knees. Then, after the usual change of mitre, the *Te Deum* began, being chanted by the choristers above, whose fresh young voices contrasted with the responses, in which, for the first time during the service, every one joined. The chanting throughout the service was really impressive, although they had not chosen any of their early church music, but had preferred later compositions. One could not but feel that the whole service was a splendid ceremonial, perfectly adapted to its surroundings, and that St. Peter's, notwithstanding all that has been written and said about the decadence of its sixteenth-century decorations and its utter want of religious mysticism, is, in its large lines and showy decorations, very well fitted for the great pomp of a function like the present one.

We left during the *Te Deum*, in order to be in time to see the crowd of pilgrims coming out at the doors. We made our way slowly and with difficulty through the crowd. It seems that some Benedictine monks had ambulances and were reviving fainting ladies during the service. The air felt delightfully fresh and bracing after the great heat inside the church. The tall Papal policemen were guarding the doors, and from the peristyle the Swiss guards, in their showy Michelangelo liveries, could be seen waiting for his Holiness's return to the Vatican. Soon we heard the sound of many voices again acclaiming the Pope and wishing him long life. The shouts continued during his passage to his palace through a doorway inside the church to the right-hand side, after which the sixty thousand people, pilgrims and spectators, came pouring through the doors, which had been thrown open after the Pope's passage, into the brilliant sunshine of the Piazza. It was a sight worth seeing. These people came together from every part of the world as a token that the Catholic faith is still very much alive, and that its votaries are ready to assemble to do honor to its supreme head; and the day was such a glorious one, so full of sunlight, with a feeling of coming spring in the air, that Rome must have seemed indeed a blessed place to those visitors. S. S.

A BOURGEOIS NAPOLEON.

PARIS, March 3, 1893.

"*NAPOLEON INTIME*"; my eyes were attracted lately by this title, though I knew absolutely nothing of the author of the book, M. Arthur Lévy. On inquiry, I learned that M. Lévy had been long engaged in buying books about Napoleon. There is a vast Napoleon literature, and at the beginning of his huge volume M. Lévy gives the list of the works which he will have occasion to cite. This list fills nearly four pages. He belongs, as you see, to the historical school, which deals with what are called original documents. "You will find in this work," he says in his preface, "no opinion concerning Napoleon which is not founded on information procured from the most varied sources, or official texts of which the originals are easily accessible, either in our National Archives or in collections which I can fully indicate." With extreme scrupulousness, the author has been careful not to use the *Mémoires de Saint-Hélène*, though it would often have confirmed his views. He has thought with some reason that you must not take the definition which a man gives of himself.

M. Lévy has certainly been very painstaking; he has read much, he has consulted many documents, but it is not necessary to read far

in his pages to see that he is wanting in the qualifications of an historian. His work might be adduced as the most characteristic proof that the modern documentary school, though it professes to have nothing in view but the truth, is often misled and errs for want of criticism. Take this example of Napoleon. Here are two men, Taine and Arthur Lévy: I don't compare them for talent, but both are systematic devotees of what we call the documentary school. Taine brings forward a thousand little facts in succession before drawing his final conclusion, and so does M. Lévy. Their notes, their citations are so numerous that they become fatiguing. How is it that, having used the same works, the same letters, the same collections, they come to totally different conclusions?

We have all read the portrait of Napoleon drawn by Taine. It is very severe, and you feel at once that the author always meant to be severe. He read his documents with the intention of finding out all he could against Napoleon, and made the most of it. He worked like the man who washes sand in the placer in order to pick up the little gold that can be found. Human nature is very complex: if you analyze a man and a life, you can present the result of the analysis in many ways. It is evident that Taine had unconsciously formed in his own mind a certain image of this great enigmatic figure of Napoleon, which will for all ages to come fill the beginning of the nineteenth century; and when afterwards he came to work out his chapter on Napoleon with the aid of documents, he took from those documents what best suited his preconceived idea. Napoleon was to him from the beginning an Italian tyrant of the Renaissance, a man of the Caesar Borgia type, thrown by events on the great stage of France and of Europe; he was a mixture of Machiavelli's Prince and the Corsican brigand. There is an evident *parti-pris* in M. Taine's development of the character and work of Napoleon, but the impression he leaves on the mind is probably nearer the truth, at least on many points, than that left by the ponderous work of M. Lévy.

It was hardly necessary to accumulate a mountain of original documents to come to a conclusion like this: "The work of this man, born a bourgeois, is essentially a bourgeois work; thanks to him, the middle classes have gained a foothold in affairs of state." The Napoleon of M. Lévy is a Napoleon bourgeois, *bonhomme*, as we say. Would you have believed it?—he was weakness itself in his family, with his brothers and sisters; he forgave his enemies; he was hardworking, painstaking, generous to a fault, economical for himself; if he made war, war was always forced upon him; he was always betrayed, he betrayed nobody; he was conciliating, and not quarrelsome. "Napoleon," says M. Lévy, "in whom were personified the virtues of the middle classes, has shown what the sons of the emancipated nineteenth century ought to be—candidates by right to all employments. He has shown . . . how the generalissimo of innumerable armies can remain a soldier; how, at the top of the social hierarchy, it is possible to be, like a common auditor of accounts, active, strict, punctual, economical, and honest."

A bourgeois Napoleon—this is surely the most paradoxical view that could be taken of a man who remains in the popular imagination a demigod, made of some other stuff than the rest of mankind. A commonplace Napoleon is a sort of outrage against that truth, deeper than the common truth, which turns history into a legend. We cannot judge Napo-

leon as M. Lévy does, and put him, as he does, on the level of the merchant, the shopkeeper, "who devotes himself, body and soul, to the prosperity of his work, who lives for it alone." There is in Bonaparte a poetical element which we cannot and ought not to ignore: the man who moulded revolutionary France into its actual form, who organized its disorganized forces, who stirred Europe to its foundations and prepared the development of our modern nationalities, was not a mere bourgeois, a good man longing only for a quiet home and the pleasures of family life.

The details of M. Lévy's book are all interesting, the conclusions which he draws from them are all wrong. He makes an exact picture and covers it with a dull gray color. He is pursued with the idea of whitewashing Napoleon, of proving that he had no defects; but, as the French say, people have the defects of their qualities and the qualities of their defects. A perfect Napoleon would probably have lived and died in obscurity. There was in him a force which could not be arrested and was comparable to a natural force. The day after the 18th Brumaire, going back to Paris, he says: "Now we must reconstruct and reconstruct solidly." And he did go to work at once, with Roederer, Dumas, and others. His powers of organization were marvellous, and nothing is more true than what Taine says of the solidity of the mould in which he fixed administrative France.

The most interesting parts of 'Napoléon Intime' are the chapters on his early years, his life in Corsica, his family, his school-days, his difficult début in Paris, his life in the capital when he was young, unknown and poor, his first relations with Barras and the members of the Republican Government. You will find condensed in these chapters a number of details, taken from a quantity of books and pamphlets; there is sometimes a melancholy note in the letters written during that period by Napoleon which is surprising in so active a man. One day, for instance, he writes to his brother Joseph: "Life is a light dream which evaporates." He is often ill, he makes a hundred plans. In a moment he rises from obscurity when the Directory employs him in Paris, and when he puts down a Royalist insurrection. He writes to Joseph after this event, which is a turning-point in his destiny: "You will have heard by the papers all that concerns me. I have been appointed by decree Lieutenant-General of the Army of the Interior. Barras has been appointed Commander-in-Chief. We have conquered, and all is forgotten."

M. Lévy does not throw enough light on the first relations of Napoleon with Barras and with Josephine Beauharnais; but he gives in *extenso* the letters which Napoleon wrote to Josephine after she had become his wife. These letters are of the most ardent lover; there is no doubt that Napoleon was almost madly in love with the charming, thoughtless, childish Creole whom the French people still call *la bonne Joséphine*. If Napoleon loved Josephine, Josephine did not return his love. She wrote to one of her friends, a short time before her marriage: "You have seen at my house General Bonaparte. Well, he is to become the father of the orphans of Alexandre de Beauharnais, the husband of his wife. Do you love him? you will ask me. Well, . . . no. Do you feel any antipathy towards him? No; but I find myself in a tepid state which displeases me, and which, in religious matters, the devout find the worst state of all."

Mme. de Beauharnais was the friend of Mme.

Tallien; the marriage had been arranged by the famous mistress of Barras. It was said at the time that Barras had enjoyed the favors of Josephine. Two days after the celebration of the marriage, Bonaparte left for Italy; he was Commander-in-Chief of the Italian Army, and during his first memorable campaign, which was a succession of victories, he found time to write to Josephine letters which were extraordinary effusions of the most violent love, and which made Josephine simply say, with a shrug of her shoulders: "Est-il drôle, ce Bonaparte!" Immediately after her marriage, during the Italian campaign, and afterwards, during the campaign of Egypt, Josephine led a life of gayety in Paris, incurred debts, allowed young officers to court her. Things became so bad during the Egyptian campaign that Napoleon returned to Paris with the firm intention of asking for a divorce; he was disarmed at the first meeting, and Josephine again took full possession of him.

When political considerations induced him afterwards to divorce her and to marry an Austrian archduchess, he provided for Josephine with the greatest generosity, and he always continued to see her from time to time. His passion for Josephine was probably a protection against the many women whom he knew afterwards, but whom he always treated with a mixture of contempt and almost of anger. We should have much to say on the chapter devoted by M. Lévy to Napoleon's relations with his sisters, especially with Pauline, whom he married first to Gen. Leclerc and afterwards to Prince Borghese. M. Lévy does not seem to us to have completely cleared Bonaparte or his sister of the imputations directed from many sides against them. The question of the murder of the Duc d'Enghien falls strangely enough in his book in a chapter which has for its heading "Sa générosité." M. Lévy speaks very lightly of this political crime. Here, and in everything, he is determined to minimize all the faults of Napoleon. In our time of severe criticism, his 'Napoléon Intime' will not be admitted as a lasting historical document.

Correspondence.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my report as Dean of the Harvard Divinity School for the last academic year I suggested that the experiment of an undenominational divinity school would not be fairly tried until there were one or two additional chairs of theology to be filled by representatives of different denominations. In his report President Eliot referred to this suggestion with approval. I have noticed in the *Nation* and in some other papers the assumption that this was a confession of the failure of the plan of an undenominational theological seminary—a cry of distress, as it were, and a reaching out after some means to repair the failing fortunes of the school. In regard to this assumption, will you allow me to say two things?

In the first place, speaking for myself alone, I will say that, from the beginning of what may be called the new movement, such a duplication or triplication of teachers of theology entered into my ideal of the school. In my report for the year 1883-84, I urged it more strongly, and discussed it at greater length, than in my report for 1891-92. I may add that, with some difference of detail, it was a favorite idea with James Freeman Clarke.

In the second place, the school was never so prosperous as now, and never in so little need of a change of policy. In the year 1880-'81 the number of students was 23, which was higher than the average. In the last three years the number has been 40 and 41. The number is small, but the proportional increase is considerable. The increase has been largely in the direction of the higher theological education. This year, for instance, the school contains 14 graduates of other theological schools, and one of our own.

If the plan under consideration were carried out, I believe that the school would be larger; but it would be so because, in my view at least, it would be better fulfilling the ideal of an undenominational school. I am well aware that to those theologians whose idea of a theological seminary is that it shall fit students for the service of one denomination, and that therefore they should be raised, so to speak, under glass, the plan will seem as ridiculous as that of an unpartisan civil service seems to an old-time politician. It will seem absurd, also, to those whose idea of an undenominational school is that it shall be conducted wholly by Unitarians. To those who believe that the office of a theological school is to help men to independent thought and to advance theological science, I think that the plan will commend itself as the one best suited to the circumstances of our time.

C. C. EVERETT.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL, March 18, 1893.

A PEST OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Cannot something be done to suppress a nuisance like that of which I enclose herewith a circular? The fourth batch of these within the past year has just been received. Remembering the effective service the *Nation* did in suppressing the great Literary Bureau in Yellow Springs, O., in 1875, my thoughts naturally turn again to you.

Very truly yours,

W.

WORCESTER, MASS., March 17, 1893.

[The circular in question is sent out from Tiffin, Ohio, by "Yours Confidentially, Colchester, Roberts & Co.," "being Alumni of first-class colleges ourselves," and recognizing "the fact that the student of the present day, as well as he of the past generation, has duties to perform and work to do for which time and fitness are wholly wanting," and that "there are those who are obliged by a tyrannical college faculty to waste both mortal time and parental money in gorging a brain with knowledge as useless to its owner as was Greek to the Montezumas." "Our prices are as follows: High School Orations and Essays, \$3 to \$8. . . . Special attention paid to Law, mathematical and medical theses. . . . No money required in advance."—ED. NATION.]

SIR THOMAS BROWNE ANTICIPATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 16, a letter by J. Shipley Newlin is headed "De Lesseps Anticipated," and a quotation is introduced from an essay of Sir Thomas Browne, to prove that he was before De Lesseps in the conception of piercing the Isthmus of Panama. Mr.

Newlin informs us that Sir Thomas Browne was born in 1605, and probably published the aforesaid essay about 1650. The great explorer Samuel de Champlain was at the Isthmus of Panama in 1590, and in a work written by him that year he refers to a ship-canal in the following words:

"One might judge, if the territory four leagues in extent lying between Panama and the river [referring to the Rio Chagres] were cut through, he could pass from the South Sea to that on the other side, and thus shorten the route by more than fifteen hundred leagues. From Panama to the Straits of Magellan would constitute an island, and from Panama to New Foundland another, so that the whole of America would be in two islands."

(*Vide* 'Brief Discovrs des Choses plvs Remarquables,' par Sammel Champlain de Brovage, 1599, Quebec edition, vol. i., p. 41. See also 'Champlain's Voyages,' Prince Society's edition, vol. i., p. 25.)

EDMUND F. SLAFTER.

BOSTON, March 17, 1893.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The suggestion of a Panama canal was made very soon after the Spanish Government became convinced, about 1525, that there was no natural waterway between the Atlantic and the Pacific save at the extremities of the continent. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, to determine who first proposed such a canal. In 1527 the route of a carriage-road from the head of navigation on the Chagres River to the Pacific was explored. A further survey was ordered in 1532. On February 20, 1534, the Emperor Charles V. ordered a special survey of this region to find out the most convenient way to establish communication between the South Sea and the head of navigation of the Chagres, to set forth the difficulties of carrying out the project presented by the difference in the height of the tides and of the divergence in level of the shores, and to compute the probable cost in men and money as well as the time necessary to bring the enterprise to completion. In October of the same year Andagoza reported that such a project was entirely impracticable, that there was no prince in the world, however powerful, capable of uniting the two seas (Navarrete, 'Viajes y Descubrimientos,' vol. iv., pp. ix-xi). During the sixteenth century many surveys were made, and the question aroused much interest. Gomara, in chap. 104 of his 'History of the Indies,' published in 1551, strongly urged the construction of an interoceanic canal and suggested four routes. Three of them were the familiar ones to which modern attention has been varying attracted, viz.: the Chagres, the Nicaragua, and the Huasacualco, or Tehuantepec routes. Gomara realized the difficulties, but hopefully declared that where there is a will there is a way (Guillemaud, 'Magellan,' 198; Bancroft, 'Central America,' iii., 738). Acosta, however, in his 'History of the Indies,' published in 1590, referred to this project, and pronounced it futile to attempt to divide the mighty barrier of mountains established by God to sustain the fury of the seas (Navarrete, *ibid.*, p. xii). Again, in December, 1616, the King of Spain requested the Governor of Castilla del Oro to investigate the feasibility of a canal (Bancroft, 'Central America,' ii., 471). Navarrete says that Bolivar had great hopes that the Panama Congress of 1825 would devote serious attention to the canal question. Navarrete adds that no doubt the future advance of the sciences and the arts will enable man to overcome obstacles then apparently insuperable.

Bancroft's 'Central America' contains various references to the proposed canal, while the appendix to the third volume gives a full account of the various projects of the present century. Bancroft is inclined to give the credit of the first proposal to Charles V.

EDWARD G. BOURNE.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND, March 18, 1893.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication published in your issue of March 16, under the heading "De Lesseps Anticipated," suggests the following passage from Eckermann's 'Gespräche mit Goethe':

"WEDNESDAY, Feb'y 21, 1827.

"Dined with Goethe. He expressed much admiration for Alexander von Humboldt, whose work on Cuba and Colombia he had begun to read. The opinions expressed by Humboldt on the construction of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama seemed to have a special interest for him. 'Humboldt,' said Goethe, 'from his intimate acquaintance with the topography of that region, has been able to indicate other points along the coast where, by utilizing some of the streams which flow into the Gulf of Mexico, the same object might, perhaps, be more easily attained. All this, to be sure, has been reserved for the enterprising spirit of the future. It is certain, however, that if a canal should be constructed which would allow the largest vessels to pass from the Gulf of Mexico into the Pacific Ocean, the consequences to the whole world would be quite incalculable. I should be surprised if the United States allowed such a work to escape from their hands. It is to be foreseen that within the next twenty or thirty years this young and vigorous nation, with its pronounced tendency towards the west, will occupy the vast territory beyond the Rocky Mountains. It is further to be foreseen that along this whole coast of the Pacific Ocean, where nature has already formed the largest and safest harbors, there will spring up important commercial centres as the medium of an extensive trade between China, the East Indies, and the United States. In this event it would be not only desirable, but almost necessary, that there should be for merchant-vessels and ships-of-war some speedier means of communication between the eastern and western coasts of North America than has hitherto been possible by the tedious, unpleasant, and expensive voyage around Cape Horn. Therefore, I repeat, the United States will find it absolutely necessary to construct a passage from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean, and I am sure that this is an undertaking which they will one day accomplish."

"I should like to live to see it, but I shall not. Secondly, I should like to see a canal connecting the Danube with the Rhine; but I fear this is a project too vast for the Germans to execute with the means at their command. Finally, I should like to see the English in possession of a canal across the Isthmus of Suez. These three great things I should like to see, and it would, perhaps, be worth the while to hold out some fifty years longer for that purpose."

Sixty-five years have passed since Goethe spoke these words, and we, at least, have lived "to see the English in possession of a canal across the Isthmus of Suez." As for the Panama Canal, if not a *fait accompli*, it is just now, as some one has said, "decidedly in the air," and that, too, in more senses than one.

M. D.

ROXBURY, March 18, 1893.

WIDOW BEWITCHED AND GRASS-WIDOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For the first of these expressions one will explore in vain the pages of Johnson, Richardson, Webster, and Worcester. Whether any of these lexicographers knew it, but thought it unworthy of record, may well be doubted. Yet it was by no means uncommon in the last century; and an exhaustive search

among my papers would, I dare say, enable me to produce twice as many quotations for it as those which follow:

"My condition was very odd; for . . . I was a *widow bewitched*: I had a husband and no husband; and I could not pretend to marry again, though I knew well enough my husband [who, a felon, had fled the country] would never see England any more, if he lived fifty years." De Foe, *Moll Flanders* (1721), p. 63 (ed. 1840).

"What can you be able to do, that would be more grateful to them, than if they should see you divorced from your husband; a Widow, nay, to live (a *Widow bewitched*) worse than a Widow; for Widows may marry again." Nathaniel Bailey, *All the Familiar Colloquies of Desiderius Erasmus* (1725), p. 171.

"As to the lady herself, she has e'en as good a Chance of being happy as the String of *Widows bewitched* who have lately taken the same Route before her." Mrs. Elizabeth Griffith, *A Series of Genuine Letters between Henry and Frances*, Vol. iv., p. 7 (1766).

"It would, perhaps, have been natural, if Sir Solomon, in his zeal to remove the licence of the old White Horse to his own premises, had offered to put the poor *bewitched widow* [a woman whose husband had disappeared mysteriously] into it." Lord Lowder abroad, Lord Denningcourt in the country, and Sir Jacob so engaged between consoling the *bewitched widow* and betting, there could be no danger from him." Mrs. A. M. Bennett, *The Beggar Girl and her Benefactors* (1797). Vol. i., p. 249; Vol. iv., p. 149 (ed. 1813).

"In a letter from Major Wight to Dr. Bell, dated July 11, 1798, we find the following passage, which would seem to intimate that, at that time, some fair lady had attracted his notice: 'What shall you make of your *widow-bewitched*? My guess is, that she is not what she seems. You have not raised her in my estimation by mentioning that Dr. Darwin is her most intimate correspondent, and Lady Audley her acquaintance and friend. I don't like learned ladies. They are, most generally, deficient in that delicacy and correctness which render a woman most truly amiable.'" Southey's *Life of Dr. Andrew Bell* (1844), Vol. ii., p. 75, foot-note.

"I [Lady Randann, who had divorced her husband] became, in the eyes of your half-formed bucks, the most attractive of all objects, a *widow bewitched*." *Morning Chronicle* (1798), in *Spirit of the Public Journals*, Vol. ii., p. 259 (1799).

"The other, a Mrs. Waldo, a *widow bewitched*." "But his rakery had been considerably subdued by this country retreat, where his attentions were confined to one woman, a widow, or a *widow bewitched*, of a lieutenant in the navy." Jeremy Bentham (about 1827), in his *Works* (1838-1843), Vol. x., pp. 14, 24. So Sir John Bowring reports what was said to him by Bentham, who was born in 1748.

See also the quotation from Mrs. Gaskell's *Sylvia's Lovers*, given by the Rev. T. Lewis O. Davies, in his *Supplementary English Glossary* (1881).

A *widow bewitched* is, then, "a woman who is living in divorce, practical, if not actual."

The expression, as I am told by a gentleman and a lady who lived many years in Devonshire, is often used there, but, they think, in the sense of "a widow eager to remarry." It rarely occurs, nowadays, in books; and I suspect that it is found in very few of the English dialects.

For the following curious quotation, earlier than my earliest for *widow bewitched*, I have to thank Dr. Murray, of the *New English Dictionary*:

"If my marrying a fortune has made me a scoundrel, . . . it is but while I continue a *Widower bewitched*." John Dunton, *Life and Errors*, etc. (1705), Vol. i., p. 405 (ed. 1818).

In Mr. Bartlett's *Dictionary of Americanisms* we read:

"*Grass Widow*. A wife who has been separated from her husband; called also a '*widow bewitched*.' In England, the term *grass widow* signifies an unmarried woman who has had a child."

Dr. Worcester defines *grass widow*, as ordinarily current, "a wife whose husband is absent from her for a length of time," and despises the locution as "cant or vulgar," which it is not in England, but only humorous. Dr. Webster's Editors, apparently quoting a later edition of Bartlett than that of 1859, while giving much the same definition, add, "or who has been deserted by her husband," and characterize the phrase as a colloquialism peculiar to the United States. But is it employed there at all in its second alleged sense?

Goldsmith, whatever he intended, wrote, in 1760:

"I have made more matches in my time than a *grass-widow*." *Miscellaneous Works* (ed. Prior, 1837), Vol. i, essay xxvi.

In Halliwell and Wright's edition of Nares's *Glossary* are these verses, from Taylor, the Water-poet, destined, perhaps, to afford an explanatory clue to the expression in a sense from which that now usually borne by it has been perverted:

"Lleurgus did a law in Sparta make,
That all men might their barren wives forsake;
And by the same law it ordained was,
Wives might unable husbands turne to grasse."

But these verses are, even now, suggestive. With allusion to a horse at grass, and therefore out of service, a wife living for a considerable period away from her husband might, by a bold metaphor, be spoken of as a *grass-wife*. A wife so circumstanced is, however, for the time being, virtually a widow. May she not thence have come by the designation of *grass-widow*? But I do not hug myself for this speculation.

Bartlett's second meaning of *grass-widow* is known, I believe, only hereabouts and for some way north from here. In the *Vocabulary of East Anglia* it is said to signify "a forsaken fair one, whose nuptials, not celebrated in a church, were consummated, in all pastoral simplicity, on the green turf." Pretty well, for one of your cloth, Rev. Robert Forby, defunct Rector of Fincham, Norfolk! But the Rev. W. T. Spurdens, dissatisfied with the elucidation of his brother-cleric, dogmatizes, touching *grass-widow*, in this wise: "This should be *grace-widow*; one who has the favour or *grace* shown her of being allowed to hide her shame under the pretence of widowhood. [Forby], [p.] 140, is merely fanciful." And what are you, sir? The question why an unmarried mother is called, by rustic euphemism, a *grass-widow* is still to be answered. Was the other import of the epithet originally misapprehended by the illiterate? F. H.

MABLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 8, 1893.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & Co. have nearly ready the first volume in the "Library of Economics and Politics," edited by Prof. Richard T. Ely, viz., 'The Independent Treasury System of the United States,' by Prof. David Kinley of the University of Michigan; and 'Philanthropy and Social Progress,' seven essays delivered before the School of Applied Ethics at Plymouth, Mass.

Harper & Brothers will soon publish Mr. Howells's new novel, 'The World of Chance'; 'The Philosophy of Singing,' by Mrs. Clara K. Rogers; 'Primary Convictions,' by the Bishop of Derry and Raphoe; Horatio Bridge's 'Recollections of Nathaniel Hawthorne,' with portraits; and Justin McCarthy's new novel, 'The Dictator.' They will also add to their series of

"The Queen's Prime Ministers" a biography of the Earl of Aberdeen by his son, Sir Arthur Gordon.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce for early publication 'Persian Literature, Ancient and Modern,' by Mrs. Elizabeth A. Rees. A facsimile of the illuminated title-page of a Persian manuscript will enrich the volume, together with a facsimile of a portion of one of the oldest known Zend manuscripts, now in possession of the University of Oxford.

A collection of papers on 'Methods of Teaching Modern Languages' is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Von Sybel's 'Erhebung Europas gegen Napoleon I.,' edited as a text-book by A. B. Nichols, instructor in German at Harvard University, will be published by Ginn & Co.

'Through Colonial Doorways,' by Anne Hollingsworth Wharton, and 'Outlines of Forestry,' by Prof. Edwin J. Houston, are among the forthcoming publications of J. B. Lippincott Co.

Zola's latest story, 'Modern Marriages,' will be published directly by Benj. R. Tucker.

'Homer and the Epic' is the title of Mr. Andrew Lang's new book, in which he maintains the unity of the 'Iliad,' and discusses Wolf's attack by the light of the history of other epics, the 'Song of Roland,' for example, and the 'Kalevala.' It will be published at once by Longmans, Green & Co. The same house has in preparation a treatise on 'Telephone Lines and their Properties,' by Prof. W. J. Hopkins of the Drexel Institute.

The second series of Mr. C. R. B. Barrett's 'Essex: Highways, Byways, and Waterways' (London: Lawrence & Bullen) deals with villages and manor-houses. The author starts from the village of Newport, and, circling the county from west to east, finishes his wanderings at Harlow. The praise that we gave the first series, which treats of boroughs and small towns, may also be extended to the second. This volume is embellished with nine etchings and many other excellent illustrations; the accompanying text is pleasantly written, with no display of learning or research, and the general make-up of the work does credit to the publishers.

Prof. N. Perini of King's College, London, has edited Dante's 'Vita Nuova' (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof) for the use of average students of Italian. His notes are not too numerous nor too recondite, and he gives further help by printing the modern form of archaic words in brackets beside the original in the text, thus, "etade (età)," "avvegnachè (quantunque)." The substance of the notes is eminently sensible, free alike from pedantic quibbles and from critical fads. The book is so well printed, and is in shape so convenient, that it ought to be popular even with readers who do not need its notes.

M. de Vogüé, the leading French popularizer of the Russian novelists, is also an industrious contributor to the periodical press, and most, if not all, of the books he has published are reprints of his magazine articles. Such a reprint is his 'Heures d'Histoire,' a duodecimo of 364 pages just published in Paris by Armand Colin & Co. The title of the collection is a misnomer, as the articles are nearly all book reviews, more or less worthy of reproduction. The concluding one, however, written last December, treats of the Panama scandal in a lachrymose sort of way, and especially deplores the corruption of the press revealed anew by the Panama investigation.

We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the first instalment of the fifth edition of

'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon,' after an interval which, as our readers are aware, has been filled by the issue of two annual supplements. Everything will now be freshly re-wrought: the type is larger and clearer, particularly the black letter of the titles, and the longer articles are usefully divided by appropriate sub-headings; the paper is, as being free from wood, guaranteed against growing yellow. But the greatest difference will lie in the number of illustrations, of one kind and another, some ten thousand being promised. The part before us contains, besides cuts in the text, colored plates of European artillerymen, and of an aquarium; colored maps of equatorial Africa and of American history, and a colored plan of Amsterdam; and an architectural sheet in black and white, giving examples of Renaissance buildings of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The barrenness of the contents of this tract of the alphabet forbids further comment, and the solid worth and accuracy of this self-renewing dictionary are too well known to be dwelt upon.

'The Published Writings of George N. Lawrence, 1844-1891,' by L. S. Foster, forms Bulletin No. 40 of the United States National Museum, and is No. iv. of the series of "Biographies of American Naturalists." Besides a striking portrait and a short sketch of the career of Mr. Lawrence, there are about 125 pages concerning his publications, especially interesting to ornithologists.

The great value of the collections made by expeditions sent out by the trustees of the American Museum of Natural History of New York city, in their efforts to secure representations from the various geological horizons, is becoming manifest through the published bulletins. Their importance is thus far most apparent in the light they throw on the forms, characters, and relationships of many species hitherto known only by fragments. One of the articles to which we refer is a sixty-six-page illustrated pamphlet, by Prof. Henry F. Osborn and Dr. J. L. Wortman, on the 'Fossil Mammals of the Wahsatch and Wind River Beds.' Another, by the same authors, relates to the 'Characters of Protoceras (Marsh), the New Artiodactyl from the Lower Miocene.' It is decided that this genus represents a distinct family which may not consistently be referred to either the Pecora or the Tragulina, as now characterized, and of which neither ancestors nor descendants have yet been recognized.

No. 3 of vol. ii. of the Bulletin from the Laboratories of Natural History of the State University of Iowa contains several entomological papers by H. F. Wickham, one of them on Alaskan forms, and a "Report on Zoological Explorations on the Lower Saskatchewan River" by C. C. Nutting. The last is rich in ornithological data, the list of birds being lengthy and accompanied by many field notes. Some of the names are introduced on slender evidence, as, description by natives. *Bonasa umbellus*, the ruffed grouse, is recorded from a headless body "with the characteristic reddish brown tail"; but Brewster, one of the best authorities, states that individuals of *B. togata*, the common form of the region, also have this mark. In respect to the white color on the under surfaces of so many sea birds, the author remarks that it may be directive, serving to flash a signal to others when the bird dives for prey. "Thus we can see a possible utility to the species in the possession of white under parts, this utility being at the same time no disadvantage to the individual who unconsciously gives the signal." The act of darting

upon prey, whatever the color of the bird, is a signal not likely to escape notice or be misunderstood by any of the keen-eyed creatures in sight bent upon a similar mission. The whiteness of the lower parts accords with the theory advanced by Garman of a bleaching effect of the light reflected from broken surfaces, crystals of sand, ice, etc. The author's treatment of the matter suggests that, like so many others, he inclines to look upon present utility as sufficient proof of origin by natural selection.

In the form of pamphlet extras, Prof. E. D. Cope publishes a couple of papers of importance to herpetologists. The first and larger, on "The Osteology of the Lacertilia" (Proceedings Am. Philos. Society, 1892) treats of North American genera of lizards; and the second, "On Degenerate Types of Scapular and Pelvic Arches in the Lacertilia," from the *Journal of Morphology*, vol. vii., relates to genera of lizards from which the limbs have partially or entirely disappeared.

The latest issue in the Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science is a readable pamphlet of some fifty pages on 'The World's Representative Assemblies of To-day.' In the table at the end may be found a compact summary of the leading facts regarding not merely the well-known national assemblies, but even such bodies of minor importance as the Council of Andorra or the Parliament of Finland. The qualifications of members, their number, and the character of the electorate, are presented in a form convenient for reference or comparison. In the essay which precedes, the compiler, Mr. E. K. Alden, has combined a series of notes on the more important questions to which a comparative study of this sort gives rise. Of course, no attempt is made to treat any of them fully in such narrow limits; but many interesting points of view are suggested on such subjects as the size of the chambers, reëlection, committees, the referendum. One who plans to undertake a more extended consideration of the subject or any of its parts will find this careful outline an admirable guide. From the skill with which the facts are grouped and their tedium relieved by apt allusions, even non-professional readers will enjoy reading it.

We have already noticed Mrs. Zelia Nuttall's discovery of a Hispano-Mexican manuscript of the sixteenth century in the Biblioteca Nazionale of Florence, and called attention to its importance as a contribution to our knowledge of the civilization and especially of the religious conceptions of the ancient Aztecs. In making a critical study of this interesting document, Mrs. Nuttall came upon a passage which placed in her hands the key to the old Mexican system of dividing time into days, weeks, months, years, etc., and enabled her to reconstruct the calendar of the ancient Aztecs. She embodied the results of her researches in a series of tables, which she laid before the Congress of Americanists at Huelva on the 11th of last October, showing that the Mexican cycle consisted of 13,515 days, comprising fifty-two ritual years of 260 days each (less five days at the end of the cycle), or fifty-one lunar years of 265 days each (based on nine moons), or thirty-seven solar years of 365 days each. In order to equalize the lunar and solar years and to bring them into harmony with each other, ten days were intercalated at the end of the fifty-first lunar year, so that each new cycle began in the same lunar and solar positions as the first. Each period commenced with a day bearing one of the four names acatl, tecpatl, calli, tochtli. This calendar, which is by no means so complicated as it seems to be at first

sight, was submitted to Prof. Norman Lockyer, who found it to be in perfect accordance with astronomical observations, and expressed the opinion that it must have been used by the aborigines of Mexico for nearly 4,000 years. At the request of the Queen Regent of Spain, Mrs. Nuttall was presented to her Majesty, who complimented her on her scholarly investigations and showed the liveliest interest in them.

In accordance with a ministerial resolution, a careful examination and description of rare MSS. lodged in the different libraries and archives of the Prussian provinces is now being made. One of the most interesting finds so far is a history of the Incas, written by Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa in 1572. It is supposed that this is the original copy sent by the author to King Philip, of which all traces had been lost for many years. Before coming into the possession in 1785 of the Göttingen library, where it now is, it had belonged to Abraham Granov of Leyden.

The British Labor Commission has been at the pains to collate the reports of all the Bureaus of Labor in the United States—a vast labor, and extremely well performed. Whether it was worth doing at all is perhaps questionable, when it is recollected that a New York functionary named Peck, whose methods were exposed to the light of publicity during the last political campaign, was a typical Labor Commissioner. The contradictory character of the results furnished by these authorities almost passes belief. We should have been glad to have the British Commission compute the cost to this country of the maintenance of these bureaus; it is probable that the income of several thousand farmers would be required to meet the expense. The United States Commission cost \$25,000 in 1885 and \$175,000 in 1892. As to the practical results, they are indicated with scientific precision by the Commissioner, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, who states that "the statistical illustrations of the various features . . . are the results of original inquiry, and these statistical illustrations, taken in connection with others, which are all from most trustworthy sources and from highest authorities, constitute a grouping of facts relative to conditions claiming the fullest attention."

The March *Pedagogical Seminary* makes the interesting announcement of a purpose on the part of its conductors, provided the necessary funds can be obtained, to establish "an ideal school for young children." The intention is to embody in an actual object-lesson as many as possible of the results arrived at by the scientific study of pedagogy, beginning with grounds, building and school furniture, and ending with applied child-study in its higher forms. Such an experiment ought by all means to be tried.

There is nothing in the *New World* for March more noticeable than Mr. J. W. Chadwick's paper on "Whittier's Spiritual Career," which, after all that has been written about the poet, contains much both of criticism and insight that will repay perusal. He recurs to the late Samuel Longfellow's services to Whittier in making him a popular hymn-writer by dint of free handling, curtailing, and patching, for which the poet's gratitude may perhaps be inferred, and was probably deserved at least from the pecuniary point of view as extending Whittier's fame and increasing the demand for his works.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen* for 1893 opens with a paper on the ethnography of Guatemala by Dr. K. Sapper, which is accompanied by a map so colored as to show the distribution of

the nineteen different languages and dialects spoken in the republic. These are briefly described, and some information is given as to the distinguishing characteristics of the various native tribes. The author ascribes the meagreness of his knowledge to the extraordinary distrust of the Indian for the European, making it very difficult for the latter even to enter an Indian's hut. In some few districts inhabited by Indians of pure blood, there are still to be found the remnants of the old civilization, shown particularly in their methods of government and healing, and in their love for music and poetry. Improvisations, he adds, can sometimes be heard at their dances. Both music and poetry, however, are fast disappearing before the increasing influence of the Spanish, and the Indian is distinctly deteriorating. In a supplemental number Dr. S. Ruge treats of the development of the cartography of America up to 1570. After a general survey of the sources of information, he gives a descriptive list of ninety-one voyages, beginning with that of Columbus and ending with Pedro Marquez, who explored the southern coast of North America in 1573. This is followed by a similar list of about two hundred and fifty maps, charts, and globes, which were published or drawn between the years 1492 and 1570. The paper is illustrated by thirty-two of the most interesting maps.

Dr. Nansen and Lieut. Peary have found a rival in Mr. Fred. G. Jackson, F.R.G.S., who announces that he is about to make the attempt to reach the Pole from Franz Josef Land. His expedition, consisting of ten men, with sledges and dogs, will probably start this summer, and he hopes to go into his winter quarters some distance to the northward of Eira Harbor. On the supposition that land exists to within a comparatively short distance of the Pole, he proposes to spend the next summer in establishing a second and possibly a third depot of supplies still farther to the north. If he should succeed in getting within two hundred miles of the Pole, he will winter at that point, and devote the following summer to an attempt to reach his goal.

An official report states that the Pinsk marshes, represented on most maps as covering an enormous area on either bank of the Pripiet River in West Russia, have been in great part reclaimed. Within the last fifteen years canals, aggregating 2,196 miles in length, have been dug, draining nearly one-half of the 16,000,000 acres of which they consist. Eight hundred thousand acres have been transformed into meadow land, immense tracts of forest have been dried and brought within reach of a market, and the river is lined with prosperous farms. Fevers have been reduced, and the terrible disease of the hair, the *plica polonica*, is said to have entirely disappeared. It is proposed to bring immigrants from Great Russia to occupy the new lands.

The late Bishop Brooks was unquestionably a bad subject for portraiture, difficult to be caught by camera or by the artist's hand. The extant likenesses of him vary not a little and are seldom satisfactory. Ticknor & Co., Boston, have just put out an etching, by Charles A. Walker, which we must take leave to think hard and unsympathetic, though the publishers vouch for its resemblance to the "Bishop," as if his appearance underwent some change on his promotion.

An erratum of more than ordinary consequence should be pointed out in our review of 'The Nationalisation of Health,' in No. 1445, in line 26 (p. 183), where "typhus" crept

in for "typhoid," which is communicable through the water supply, whereas typhus is distinctly infectious, like smallpox.

—In the March *Atlantic* Sir Edward Strachey writes, in the pleasant, somewhat old-fashioned manner which we have before described, a paper on "Persian Poetry," graphic and touched with sentiment, and instinct with good taste. The subject is, at the same time, remote and much worn by the pens of critics, but he discloses such poetical charm in his brief review as to make the matter treasure-trove equally with his unusually refined literary treatment. Style is so much a lost art of the modern magazine as to make a single instance notable, though it comes in this particular case in a curiously antiquated form. The paper belongs to the period of Fitzgerald's Oxford conversations, and suggests a similarly refined culture in the taste of its author. Dr. Furness's reminiscences of Emerson, delightful in their colloquial and random character, also remind the reader of a time when writers had leisure to attend to their words and found their account in it. His anecdotes of the spirit of Harvard youths in his day, their enthusiasm for the well-turned phrase and the purely rhetorical in style, are significant of the sources of that literary success which makes the brightest spot in our book-history; and with them may be joined Dr. Hale's anecdotes of Harvard in his college days, illustrative of Edward Channing's teaching. In those times there were no Reports on the English Department of such an unenviable sort as the late half-humorous disclosures of the ability of the young students to express themselves; and possibly such records of the past may be as useful a commentary as any for the reading of those who have the training of the future Harvard authors in charge. Mr. Havelock Ellis gives some interesting statistics of the genealogy of a dozen contemporary English authors, with the view of showing that they are not of pure English blood, and makes the somewhat sweeping correlative assertion that "genius" does not exist except as a resultant of the fusion of the long-headed and the broad-headed primitive races of Europe.

—Returning for a moment to Dr. Furness's article, we remark that he says: "Our national motto, 'E pluribus unum,' does not mean, as I imagine it is generally understood, one made up of many, but one out of many." This is a very old criticism, but is as baseless as it is old, and was exploded years and years ago. But, as some young persons may be misled by Dr. Furness's doctrine, it may be as well to quote once more the familiar verses from the pseudo-Virgilian 'Moretum,' 104-6, which settles the matter so far as the Latinity is concerned:

"color est e pluribus unus,
nec totus viridis, quia lactea frusta repugnant,
nec de lacte nitens, quia tot variatur ab herbis."

Southern scholars were rather fond of citing these verses in secession days, and no wonder. "Lactea frusta repugnant" represented their side of the irrepressible conflict, and it suited them to regard the Union as a salad and not as a growth. Those who are old enough to have read Cowper will recall his translation of the passage and the lines so distasteful to the States-rights people:

"He grinds, and by degrees his herbs below,
Laid in each other, their own powers forego."

—Scribner's brings forward a very full and detailed review of the French Symbolists, but the subject itself forbids a very clear presentation of their notion or methods. The names are given and some analysis of their mostly ob-

scure works; the language, however, is too essential a part of the scheme of these reformers to permit the reader to feel their originality or eccentricity very accurately in the dress of a translation. Such attempts at a new mode of literature depend much on delicacies of phrase and cadence, and we should do wrong to judge of anything except their matter from this account. Their matter is at best a tale for a midsummer madness, so far as it appears here. The school has value as a sign and illustration of the *fin de siècle*, independently of its intrinsic worth. The autobiography of Audubon is a charming piece of self-revelation and of description of intimate home surroundings; it is a pity there is not more of such a simple and direct story of reality. The philanthropic papers of the magazine are continued in an account of the Andover House in Boston. The article is mainly confined to the description of the organization and its methods, and discloses almost nothing of the life of the poor in Boston. This renders it less effective in leavening public opinion, but it will be useful to the organizers of work among the poor in other cities.

—Harper's, besides the usual grist of travel, is distinguished by a careful summary account of the slave-trade and the man-hunt in Africa from the pen of Stanley. The cuts are very shocking, both in physiognomy and in incident, but they illustrate the text; and the measures suggested by the author, though they involve great expense and something of speculative motive, are made plausible. The element of duty in the problem is much emphasized, and the need of action in the interest of the material future of Africa as well as of humanity is set forth with the clear and precise eloquence of facts. The continuous attention which the subject has received is possibly the most promising sign that some line of action must finally be taken by civilized nations. The topic of official society in Washington is well developed by Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson, who shows how truly the social life of the nation in all its prosperous varieties is reflected in the daily round of the gatherings of people in Washington for acquaintance or private diversion. Several distinct types are cleverly drawn, and the conventional rule to which all who stay succumb is presented in all its barrenness, ennui, and routine. The more interesting part, by far, is that floating and shifting element which, though always there, does not suffer the social change, but remains in its untaught, ungoverned, and picturesque rudeness of natural good-will and lively curiosity. Mrs. Deland's tale of "The Face on the Wall" is also worthy of attention by students of morals in literature and the tendency of the popular story even in our best-reputed magazines.

—The *Century's* *pièce de résistance* is "Napoleon's Deportation to Elba," by Admiral Ussher, who was in charge. The account is practically unknown, and it is of great historical and personal interest in relation to Napoleon. Westminster Abbey is elaborately described and illustrated, and is the second main article of the number. The greater portion of the magazine is taken up with the lighter sort of painter-travel sketches, in which picturesqueness and distance are equal attractions to the reader. For the musical public there is a notice of Saint-Saëns; for the religious, a paper on the criticism of the Old Testament writings; and the usual serials, including the interesting correspondence of General and Senator Sherman, continue.

—On February 9 the lecture-room of the Indian Institute at Oxford was crowded by many of the Orientalists, some of them Orientals, in residence at Oxford, to hear the well-known American Zend scholar, Dr. L. H. Mills, on "Immortality in the Gáthas." The word immortality as it occurs in the Gáthas was one of those poetical personifications which in later use soon sank to the lower level of theological abstractions. Was there room for doubting its reference in the Gáthas to a spiritual and future state? As used in the Vedas, it commonly designated a supernatural eternity attached to the life of gods. Did the same word necessarily mean a life after death in the Old and New Avesta? Suppose it does not, then in several passages the Gáthic immortality, being described as this present life indefinitely prolonged, would suggest rather the "hundred autumns" of the sister book than the eternal life of Indra. It was at all events plain that the hope of immortality, as it presented itself in both books, grew out of the desire of a life prolonged on earth beyond ordinary limits. However, in the typical chapter of the Gáthas it is the soul of a *youthful* Gáthic saint which progresses towards heaven. This heaven was a life filled with holiness "in thought, word, and deed," but still it was life, and excluded death as of the evil spirit. Here we may detect the difference between the Vedic hundred years of life and Gáthic immortality, which was a banishment of death. If we were to stop at this, and insist upon excluding the notion of a future and spiritual immortality, what could we do with those Gáthic passages where this very state of "death banishment" in the present life is wrought out to a climax by appeals to an immortality vouchsafed by Mazda Ahura with the fulness of grace from himself as the head of Dominion? What of the graphic glimpses given of its inverted counterpart in store "for those believing ill, false men, evil minded"? "In falsehood's home," we read, "at last their forms abide." Moreover, there is the apostrophe to Mazda Ahura—"when, as rewarding deeds and words, thou shalt establish evil for the evil, and bappy blessings for the good, by thy just discernment in the creation's final change." Gáthic immortality, though often conceived of as a deathlessness in the present life to be completed in a future state after the still sacred body should have paid the debt of nature, involved a future existence. This teaching made the Avesta the book of the other life to the pre-Christian world.

—In a college pamphlet recently printed in England for private circulation among Cambridge women students, past and present, there is given, by a leading member of the Women's University Settlement at Southwark, a statement of the aims and policy of the Settlement which invites comparison with the annual report (lately referred to in these columns) of the College Settlement Association nearer home. As an independent body, it is stated, the Southwark Settlement could not undertake a third of what it does; only by holding to the principle of coöperation with others, rather than of origination by themselves, are its members able to attempt the work they do. In accordance with this admirable principle, the Settlement provides a secretary, treasurer, and other members for the local committee of the Charity Organization Society; it also lends its helping hand to the Children's Country Holiday Fund, the Invalid Children's Aid Association, the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants, and the London

Pupil Teachers' Association. The Women's Benefit Society for Southwark finds its headquarters at the Settlement, while the Nursing Association for the same area has lately come into close connection with it. District visiting, board school work, rent collecting, or "house-management," claim the energies of other workers. In addition to its federated interests, the Settlement has for its newest independent venture a Junior Club for Girls who have just left school and are under sixteen. This club, which is thus far very popular with the children, meets four nights a week and has classes in various subjects. Finally, the writer gives a highly suggestive paragraph to what she calls the "somewhat new aspect of the Settlement as a training ground for workers." Although in most fields of work, she goes on to say, the value of training is now clearly recognized, its value for the workers among the poor has not been sufficiently considered. At the Settlement, on the side of practice, the worker may acquire business-like habits and "that power of dealing readily with people of all kinds which comes from much personal contact"; while on the side of theory she may attend the lectures given from time to time, and the monthly instructions in the technical side of work, "though perhaps she will learn most from the informal talk that goes on constantly around her." Like the annual report already referred to, this informal paper has no statistics or tabulated records to offer, nor, it is stated, has the Settlement much to show in the way of buildings, or class-rooms, or apparatus of any kind. But in merely standing for the idea of the value and necessity of accurate and prolonged training for work hitherto too often recommended and taken up as an outlet for the otherwise unoccupied energies of women without the requisite qualifications, the Settlement is performing a needed service to society; while in its singleness of aim and its ideal of immediate practical helpfulness to the poor and unfortunate, it sets a standard that cannot be too closely followed by all later foundations of a similar character.

—The French journals now contain constant reports and descriptions of the "envois" to the French exposition at Chicago. The *Temps*, a fortnight ago, noticed at some length the works of art sent from the national establishments—the porcelain of Sèvres and the tapestries of Beauvais and the Gobelins. From Sèvres, besides important decorated pieces, vases, amphoræ, plates and dishes, cups, etc., painted by the best-known Sèvres artists, there are coming several busts and figures in biscuit of extreme delicacy and exquisite execution—among others, a reproduction of the (official) bust of the President of the Republic by Chapu (distinguished chiefly, perhaps, for his beautiful monumental tombs); a bust of the Republic herself, by Injalbert, whose works follow the best traditions of French sculpture; a reduced reproduction of the statue of François Boucher by Aubé—one of the most characteristic of his many portrait statues; by Suchetet, still a comparatively young man, a Leda; a Judith by Aizelin, whose female figures excel in fineness and elegance; and by Barrias, who fifteen years ago became famous through "Les Premières Funérailles," the figure of Mozart as a child. This work dates from ten years ago. The little virtuoso is represented as tuning his violin, which rests on his slightly raised knee, and his head is bent in attention; the mingling of childishness and genius in the expression is admirable. From Beauvais we

are to see ten great pieces of tapestry, and six from the Gobelins, of which the most noteworthy is "La Filleule des Fées," designed by Mazerolle, the border by Galland. Other pieces of decorative art are also on their way—an Amphitrite by Mercié, a figure of ivory and gold on a pedestal of gold-work; a dish in faience decorated by Mme. Moreau-Nélaton, and cups in the marvellous gold-cloisonné translucent enamel of Thesmar. This list, which might be much lengthened, indicates that the visitors to the exhibition will have the opportunity of seeing not only beautiful reproductions, but also some specimens of the new forms of plastic art that have attracted attention in the recent Salons.

—The vigor with which study in the varied field of economics has been prosecuted in the last fifteen years is strikingly illustrated in the new edition of Cossa's well-known 'Guide to the Study of Political Economy.' The earlier work has, in fact, been entirely rewritten as well as greatly enlarged, and so appropriately bears a new name: 'Introduzione allo Studio dell' Economia Politica' (Milan: Hoepli). The extent of the general part, on methods, etc., is more than doubled, while in the historical part we have 430 pages instead of 150. The number of authors mentioned is increased from about 700 to over 2,000. Apart from this marked enrichment of material, there are noticeable improvements in classification. In the 'Guide' all the historical matter preceding the chapter on the Physiocrats was massed, with merely chronological subdivisions, in two chapters entitled Ancient Political Economy and Modern Political Economy. In the 'Introduzione,' in their place, are chapters on The Epoch of Fragmentary Work, Monographs, Empirical Systems, The Liberal Reaction and Eclecticism, The Precursors of the Science. In reading these chapters one is vividly impressed with the tentative, groping process which characterizes the progress of human thought. The survey of the modern development of economic science is very full and interesting. The chapter on the United States appeared last year in the *Giornale degli Economisti*, and was noticed in these columns. The last chapter deals with contemporary Theoretic Socialism. We shall seem captious, but we should have been pleased to learn something of the condition of economic studies in Spanish and Portuguese America. A subject-index, in addition to the index of names, would render more accessible to the reader the wealth of special studies mentioned. Prof. Cossa has placed all students under the greatest obligation by this truly masterly work. The thoughtful reader cannot rise from a perusal of it without being profoundly impressed with the instructive past, the present vigor, and the splendid future of economic science.

MILNER'S ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

England in Egypt. By Alfred Milner, Late Under-Secretary for Finance in Egypt. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan.

THE time at which this work appears is curiously opportune, and the circumstances under which it has been given to the public are almost unique. Our readers have been kept informed of England's remarkable endeavors for the regeneration of Egypt since, in 1882, she decided, against her own inclination, to undertake single-handed the task of saving that country from the anarchy with which it was threatened. Mr. Milner's book has been

written to explain fully to all the world the extraordinary conditions under which that work has been done; the hindrances which have been met with and their origin; the degree of success attained; the national duty, as he conceives it, which devolves upon England to stick courageously to the thankless but necessary task to which she has put her hand; the duty of other nations to give her at least moral support and sympathy in her efforts to solve the Egyptian problem.

A distinctive character and special interest is given to the book by the author's official position. After serving a long apprenticeship in finance under Mr. Goschen, to whom he was private secretary, Mr. Milner was sent to Egypt to fill the important post which he has held for some years in the Department of Finance. Last year he returned to England to assume the duties of Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue, one of the highest English departmental appointments. In his Egyptian post he must have had an opportunity to see from the inside the secret working of the whole machine of government; in his English post he must still write under a deep sense of official responsibility. Noting these facts, we observe, almost with surprise, the absolute frankness and fulness with which English methods of dealing with Egypt are discussed. It is quite impossible to conceive a man of Mr. Milner's standing writing this book without having the expressed or tacit consent of his colleagues and of the superiors who are responsible for the position of affairs in Egypt. It is not every day that the public are thus invited to look at and pass judgment upon the inner processes of diplomacy and statecraft in a sphere which is peculiarly a centre of international contention and intrigue. For this is the case in Egypt. Everybody has known in a vague way that for the last few years the political situation in that country has been one of the most anomalous in the world. Events have constantly suggested the probability that the Egyptian question might become the pivot of European politics at any moment. The irritability and sensitiveness of France touching all Egyptian matters has been exceeded only by her depth of feeling in respect of Alsace and Lorraine. For the moment of diplomatic advantage in the one case she watches as sedulously as for the moment of military advantage in the other. Turkey, too, with less power, has equal willingness to cause embarrassment, while almost every European nation has rights or interests in Egypt which tend to complicate the situation. England, meanwhile, has assumed the main responsibility for the good government of the country. It is through this political tangle that Mr. Milner undertakes to guide his readers.

Primarily his book commends itself by perfect simplicity, directness, and manifest sincerity of statement. The keynote of every effective book is in the present case unmistakable. In a recent address Lord Rosebery said that the British Empire was "the greatest secular agency for good now known to mankind. It would be nothing," he continued, "were it a symbol of violence and rapine, or even conquest; it is what it is. It represents everywhere peace and civilization and commerce, the negation of violence." This is a large claim and a large faith, but it is precisely that which, applied to the particular case of Egypt, Mr. Milner preaches in this book. He does not base his doctrine on mere assertion, but expounds and illustrates it with a fulness of knowledge and a variety of proof drawn from industrial and financial statistics, and no less

from moral considerations, which must put the critics upon their mettle. As to his accuracy:

"I have spared no pains," he says, "to verify every statement, either by reference to published records or by careful consultation of men intimately acquainted with the work of the several departments of government. Mistakes there may be, but they are assuredly not due to a desire to twist or conceal facts in favor of any particular view, however strongly I may hold it. If the facts will not support it, perish the view."

This pledge of fair statement and reliance upon open argument is, we think, fulfilled throughout the book. Mr. Milner devotes his earlier chapters to a rapid review of the circumstances which forced England against her will into the occupation of Egypt, threatened, as it was, by

"a reign of blank barbarism. . . . European property was no longer safe; European blood, including that of a number of our own countrymen, had already been shed. There was every symptom of further violence, not only to all Europeans, but to all Christians. Face to face with this frightful emergency, the English Government looked to the European concert; it looked to Turkey; it looked in the last resort to combined action with France, to avert the otherwise inevitable duty of independent interference."

Forced to act alone, she threw herself resolutely into the breach. "Let it always be remembered that Great Britain did save Egypt from anarchy, and all European nations interested in Egypt from incalculable losses in blood and treasure, to say nothing of the deep dishonor which those losses, foreseen and yet unhindered, would have brought on civilized mankind." To obviate anarchy and put down a rebellion was the work of a few weeks; to establish "an order of things which should have the elements of stability and progress," was a far longer and more trying task. At the end of ten years England finds the work only fairly begun. The slowness of progress will cease to be a matter of wonder to any one who reads the chapters of this book, almost as interesting as the pages of a romance, which present a picture of the international fetters by which Egypt was bound, and the slough of native incapacity and official corruption from which she had to be drawn when English influence first began to make itself felt. Still less will the reader wonder when he traces, as he may do here, the hesitancy with which England took up any defined position or exercised any definite authority; the doubt which long existed whether her influence might not be at any moment withdrawn. What has been the net result of these ten years—for after all it is by results that the English occupation of Egypt must finally be judged? This truth Mr. Milner has fully grasped, since it is with results that he principally deals.

"If there is one thing absolutely certain, it is that the great majority of the Egyptian natives, and especially the peasantry, have benefited enormously by our presence in the country. For the few, the new system has meant loss as well as gain; for the many, it is all pure gain. At no previous period of his history has the fellah lived under a government so careful to promote his interests or to protect his rights."

This main proposition is proved by an array of facts and figures which, unless they can be controverted, leave no room for questioning. The extravagance of Ismail had left the country burdened with a debt which had risen from three millions in 1883 to eighty-nine millions in 1876. "There is nothing in the financial history of any country, from the remotest ages to the present time, to equal this carnival of extravagance and oppression." How Egypt

has been saved from absolute bankruptcy, how her credit has been restored, how taxes have been reduced, how at the same time money has been found for necessary public improvements, Mr. Milner explains with the natural satisfaction of one who has taken a considerable share in the work. But in the valley of the Nile there can be no financial equilibrium without agricultural prosperity, and no agricultural prosperity without abundant irrigation plus conditions of government which leave the peasant free to employ his industry to the best advantage. The steps by which was made possible the abolition, at least in its worst aspects, of the *corvée*, or system of forced labor, are themselves of profound interest. For the mechanical problems of irrigation England had the advantage of being able to call in the aid of experts trained by long experience in India; for the more difficult problem of distributing the water impartially among the whole agricultural population she had to create what Egypt had apparently never before known, an honest administration. Mr. Milner's explanation of the vast improvement in the system of irrigation is crowned by a noble suggestion. An immense reservoir, costing possibly £5,000,000 sterling, is yet required to give the fullest development and the most complete security to Egyptian agriculture. Mr. Milner proposes that some portion of the enormous profit which in a year or two England will realize from the purchase of the Suez Canal shares (the original interest of £4,000,000 has increased in value to almost £30,000,000) should be applied to the construction of this reservoir. Most people will agree with him when he says: "I can think of no act which would commend itself more promptly to the equitable judgment of mankind, or which would do more to render Great Britain beloved in Egypt."

Limits of space forbid us to follow our author in his exposition of the change which has been effected in the administration of justice, perhaps the most useful of all, the reorganization of the army, or into those odds and ends of reform to which he devotes an interesting chapter. Not least frank and full is the dissection of the "policy of spite" pursued in Egyptian affairs by France. The recent crisis in Egypt gives a peculiar timeliness to the present volume, and furnishes a curious and unexpected proof of the author's accuracy and insight. Travel, study, or connection with missionary effort has given many Americans a permanent interest in Egypt. Others delight in the intricate problems connected with the application of Western civilization to Oriental conditions. To all such 'England in Egypt' may be recommended as a conscientious study of an extremely complicated question.

CARPENTER'S INDIA AND CEYLON.

From Adam's Peak to Elephantia: Sketches in Ceylon and India. By Edward Carpenter. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THIS book, of fewer pages than the days in the year, is more instructive and withal entertaining than many a more voluminous and pretentious work. Its author brought knowledge home because he carried knowledge out. His sketches, also, were largely pencillings by the way, such as only those travellers make who feel that half a word fixed on the spot is worth a cartload of recollections. Then, his physique was admirable. After shivering through a sleepless night on a mountain, he walked twenty miles the next day in equatorial heat.

He did not mind joltings in bullock-carts so long drawn out that they would have made most men stage-crazy. He had a quick eye to catch salient points in nature, art, and each change of many-colored life. More than all, he came into familiar and confidential intercourse with natives to a degree quite exceptional for an Englishman. Everywhere he secured friends among the native proletariat.

One of the earliest of this class was a rice-raising peasant near Candy in whose cabin he lodged, and who became his guide, philosopher, and friend up Adam's Peak, across the country from it to the River Kaluganga, and downstream in a native bark. In this tramp and others like it the Englishman was immersed in a flood of Orientalism, and took it in as by absorption at every pore. To every Socialist he became as a twin brother. He also made himself at home with schoolmasters, barbers, opium-sellers, railroad clerks, and even Brahmans, all of whom could speak broken English, and no one of whom could fail incidentally and unawares to teach him much he would not otherwise have learned. He thus had an inside view of coolie slavery. His estimation of the palm was heightened when, on his remarking that palms could not grow in England, a native cried out: "How can you live there?" He was admitted to esoteric midnight mysteries, seldom witnessed by strangers, and has filled a chapter with realistic details concerning a nocturnal procession and voyage of the gods, concerning Nautch girls, offerings, music, etc. On the last topic Mr. Carpenter, being himself a musician, expatiates for more than half-a-dozen pages, which, though Greek to outsiders, must be full of significance to the initiated. When he first came to Ceylon, he was criticised by his first Tamil friend about his way of calling him and the rest of the population, whether Tamil, or Mohammedan, or Cingalese, all indiscriminately *natives*, "as if we were so many oysters." The rebuke seemed so just that he henceforth, to the end of his book, gave the name "oysters" to all non-Europeans. Thus frequent contact with Hindu life at many points exercised his senses to discern lights and shades where otherwise all would have been of one color.

Mr. Carpenter went to the Orient in search for a religion. He encountered one sage of India who might have been a descendant from the Gymnosophist of whom Alexander inquired how a man might become a god. At all events, this Guru, or Illuminated Master, so impressed the traveller that he sat for weeks at his feet, though he had found nothing to reverence in Christendom. The seer was as affable as the archangel to Adam, "only requiring a question to launch off into a long discourse—fluent and even rapt for an hour or two." This was the more remarkable because his speech was an unknown tongue to his English disciple, who could not even count in Tamil. Thanks, however, to an interpreter, Mr. Carpenter gathered enough of the hidden manna to fill several chapters of his book. The aspiration of the Gnanis, or Theosophists, is to a new order of consciousness—cosmic-universal—passing into ecstasy. Among the methods of attaining to this exaltation of one *vere adeptus*, who "swims into identity with the universe," are self-torture, Pythagorean silence for years, repeating the same word for days together, fixing attention for as long a period on his own breathing, effacement of all thought and at last of every desire. These austerities gave the English inquirer no great shock. But hearing that the fault is in the stars and not in ourselves if we are underlings, that copper

may be turned into gold, and that the earth is flat, the sun at night hiding behind Mount Meru, he could not repress some sceptical doubts. The only answer he got was, "These things are so, such has been the tradition from a time beyond all memory. They cannot be spoken against." Mr. Carpenter had a similar experience at the temple of Tanjore. When a priest told him that the temple never cast any shadow, he said: "Why, we are now walking in its shadow, and would be sunstruck if we did not." The answer in substance was, "We must never trust to our senses when they run counter to tradition. They may delude; it cannot." On the whole, the religious pilgrimage of Mr. Carpenter was less successful than that of the Magi. He was, indeed, deeply impressed by the sincerity, earnestness, and whole personality of his great master, the Guru Ramaswamy, yet was not ready to do him homage with gold, frankincense, and myrrh. The only missionaries he noticed were the Salvationists, and these he admired greatly.

Regarding the permanence of English dominion over India Mr. Carpenter is quite in accord with the writer of the present notice, who travelled there at the same time. The fewness of the English—not one in a thousand—made a cumulative impression, growing with the growth of the journey. Their inability to live in the country without an annual flight to the mountains, their sending wives home for health and children for education, their pervading passion to leave India themselves—if not with a competence accumulated, then to return to England on a scanty pension—these things were ominous. Still darker was the prospect arising from the fact that there is a great gulf fixed between English officials and commercials, and one still greater between them both and missionaries as well as Eurasians, the children of native mothers and European fathers. But these sections of the ruling race are not severed from each other so sharply or so hopelessly as all of them are from those who figure in Mr. Carpenter's pages as "oysters." At only one place could he discover anything like a cordial feeling between the rulers and the ruled. He compares the aloofness of the English from natives to that of whites from blacks in our South. Yet English and Hindus are of the same Aryan stock. Sepoy gunners in 1857 were so superior to English that they have ever since been excluded from the artillery. In the Bombay court, English barristers showed up feebly against native pleaders, and Mr. Carpenter thinks the educated oysters, if anything, superior to the Englishman in matters of pure intellect. For some years a congress of delegates from all India at its annual sessions has demanded some share in the Government. Not a month before Mr. Carpenter landed in India, Mr. W. S. Caine, late a member of Parliament—an agitator strangely unmentioned by Mr. Carpenter—was holding mass-meetings in India and demanding a mild form of home rule. At more than one of them the present writer was at a loss whether to wonder more at the throng of natives or at the utter absence of English. Each fact was full of meaning. The first Ceylonese with whom Mr. Carpenter companied was always asking him about Europe. As it was in the beginning, so to the end he found men's ideals Western. They longed for Western culture, Western arts, and Western institutions. Dreams of these things seemed already leavening the whole lump. Such dreams he held to be a long step, and perhaps the most important one, towards their realization. Such dreams, disturbing the slumbers of three hundred millions, cannot leave

long intact "the enormous faith of many made for one" which is the chief corner-stone of the English empire in India.

Mr. Carpenter's readers will enjoy many racy anecdotes of a piece with the following: An English maiden, in the afternoon of her best days, was pleading with a rajah against child-marriage. He admitted that it was bad, but thought it also an evil that there was no English association to provide husbands for ladies like her before their hair grew gray.

Le Réve. Par Émile Zola. Illustrations de Carloz Schwabe et L. Méivet. Paris: Flammarion; New York: J. W. Bouton.

AMONG the few men who, last year, gave distinction to the Champ-de-Mars Salon, Carloz Schwabe was conspicuous. He had up to that time been known chiefly as one of Sar Péladan's flock, not the strongest recommendation. But if the drawings for the illustration of Zola's *'Réve'*, which he then exhibited, contained mysticism, or symbolism, enough to please ardent followers of the Rosy Cross, in them also were sounder qualities to attract the artist. These drawings, with the text, were afterwards (throughout the summer and early winter) published by Flammarion in separate numbers, which have now been gathered together and issued in one volume.

To those who saw the originals, the reproductions lose greatly by being printed in black and white; for nothing was lovelier in the drawings themselves than what might be called the color designing. With a few tints, Schwabe had produced a harmony to which tone and modelling were so well subordinated that his work charmed because of his supremacy, not as a mystic, not as a draughtsman, but as a designer in color. This was the capacity in which he excelled; and, therefore, it seems to us that even the many who do not know the originals must in the reproductions be conscious of a certain incompleteness, in some cases of a certain barrenness, which irritates and puzzles. Another drawback is the very indifferent printing. Illustration after illustration is marred by an effect of weakness for which the printer, and not the artist, is responsible. It is unfortunate, since first impressions are not easily set aside, that this feebleness is most apparent on the first page, where the border of passion flowers is forlornly faint, and what was meant to be the black mass of the cathedral, for the bringing out of the figure in stronger relief, is but a dirty gray smudge.

It is only fair to Schwabe to point out these defects at once; we are too apt to take the illustrator to task for the faults of the various craftsmen through whose hands his work must pass before it is presented to the public. And when it comes to Schwabe's actual designs, while they may prove a problem to the layman who seeks for meaning in a painting or a drawing, they are a delight to the artist who cares alone for treatment and method. The aim of the illustrator of novel or tale, as we understand it, is not to borrow and repeat at different angles a face, or type, that happens to please the author, not to suggest merely the main incidents of the plot, but to express in drawing the pervading feeling of the story he illustrates, or, in other words, to show himself in sympathy with it, and, at the same time, to make his subjects little more than an excuse for a beautiful arrangement of lines, or of figures, or of landscape, or of architecture that will fitly decorate the page. Judged by this standard, Schwabe must be counted a master of illustration. His tendency to that

mysticism which is the latest Parisian fad makes Zola's 'Rêve' a book especially adapted to his purpose. Angélique, living almost within the sanctuary of the old mediæval church, spending her days in embroidering mystic symbols and strange flowers on priestly garments, spending her nights in dreams of saints and angels—Angélique, whose love was born of her dreaming, and in its birth and growth had for background spring, full of sweet blossoms and sweeter perfumes—Angélique is the heroine to provide Schwabe in endless variety with the motives he loves best. From her broidery frame, the annunciation lilies and passion-flowers and roses stray into his drawings to surround one page with lovely arabesques; her visions fill another with heavenly figures which, like haloed saints and virgins of old, are a decoration in themselves; and Spring trails her blossoms in exquisite scrolls and diapering over his paper, as through the seclusion of Clos-Marie. Indeed, it is hardly too much to say that Schwabe's realization of Angélique's mystic reveries gives a clue to the 'Rêve' which many may not have found in the text; while his maddest flights of symbolism, instead of seeming foolish affectation, are, to the appropriate illustration of Zola's story, absolutely indispensable.

But it is when we consider the methods by which he has expressed this mysticism that his drawings are most interesting. We know the way in which this would be managed by the symbolist—the name answers for want of a better—of the English school: excess of symbolism and primitiveness of treatment would emphasize the soulfulness of the draughtsman and justify indifferent draughtsmanship; decorative effect would be sought, if sought at all, through archaic means. And if the artist endeavored to explain wherein the merit of the result lay, he would tell you it was entirely in the meaning, for too often, if shorn of meaning, the picture or drawing, on the face of it, would be worthless. But it is a very different matter with Schwabe. It is not because of his symbolism, but despite it, that his drawings achieve distinction. As illustrations to Zola's novel, their curious mysticism has its value. But if we saw them apart from the book, knowing nothing of it, we should never stop to ask their meaning, so great would still be our pleasure in their beauty and his accomplishment. Not by aggressiveness of symbol, but by simplicity and sobriety of line, does he command attention. Nor does he rely upon Greek drapery or Düreresque handling for success as book decorator. His people wear every-day dress, his men coats and trousers, his women commonplace skirts and blouses; his technique is that of the modern man who has been trained to work for process reproduction. But the dignity of his well-balanced compositions, the grace and almost solemnity of his well-drawn figures, produce a far more decorative result than the strained archaism of a Burne-Jones or the exaggerated morbidity of a Rossetti. It is easy to see that the subject has appealed to him only when it has afforded the chance to carry out his decorative fancies. If he has made the dream of Félicien as St. George, accompanied by troops of virgins, a motive, it is because he has realized beforehand the marvellous contrast to be had between the glory of the heavenly hosts and the starry skies and shadowy woodland of night; if, with Angélique, he has personified Spring and her attendants, it is because of his appreciation of the lines of figures to which, nude or draped, he can appropriately lend the slimmest and yet voluptuousness that fascinates in Botticelli's Venus. If, in a word, the

young girl's visions appeal to him above all else, it is because, like Blake, he feels keenly the beauty to be had in spirit forms sweeping through space, the majesty of winged Death, the force of impossible grotesques.

While there is so much that is fine in his drawings, we must also admit that, at times, his flowery borders strike a discordant note in the otherwise austere and stately composition. This is especially the case in the cover, where the row of passion-flowers at the base of the design seems to belong rather to South Kensington than to the art that produced the climbing houses, surmounted by the buttressed church, the dove, or Holy Ghost, as you will, encompassing the town with his feathered wings. The flowers, however, are always beautifully drawn, and we are less disposed to discover blemishes in Schwabe's drawings, when we turn from them to the illustrations of L. Métivet, who, for one reason or another, illustrates the concluding chapters. The latter has modelled his style on Schwabe's, but, with him, angels degenerate into the sugar ornaments of the wedding cake, Angélique is transformed into a second-rate model for a fashion-plate, decoration offends by its pretension and banality. It needed but these drawings to convince one more fully of the truth to be learnt from Schwabe: in the designer's work meaning counts for nothing; it fails or succeeds according to the measure of his artistic achievement.

The story itself is too well known to call now for further criticism. But its reappearance in Flammarion's edition is a noteworthy event, even in these days, when illustrated books are the rule and not the exception.

Faith-Healing, Christian Science, and Kindred Phenomena. By J. M. Buckley, LL.D. The Century Co. 1892.

AMONG the magazine papers of which this book has been composed, those on "kindred phenomena"—astrology, dreams, presentiments, witchcraft—have small claim to be reprinted. The others, too, seem to us to derive their chief value from the copious extracts made from the bedlamish writings of expositors of faith-healing, Christian science, and mind cure. This jargon ought to warn off any sane and disciplined mind; and it probably would always do so if not preceded by reports of extraordinary cures. Within limits, Dr. Buckley concedes the reality of some of the alleged cures, but, like the medical faculty, he can come no nearer to an explanation of them and of well-known instances of the effect of imagination on bodily conditions than to say (p. 25): "In all the foregoing cases, the cure or relief was a natural result of mental or emotional states." In other words (p. 38), "the 'mind cure' . . . has a basis in the laws of nature." And again (p. 42): "A formula can be constructed out of the elements of the human mind which will give as high average results as their [the faith-healers'] prayers or anointings. That formula in its lowest form is 'concentrated attention.' . . . Passes, magnets, anointings with oil are useful only as they produce concentration of attention, reverence, and confident expectancy."

If this "formula" were invariably or generally effective, there would appear to be a useful field for professors of it, and Dr. Buckley would have little ground of quarrel with the faith-healers, especially if they dispensed with prayer. His chief concern is to confute the notion that prayer has anything to do with the cures he finds it necessary to admit, and his

chief argument is derived from the restricted field of operation—the nervous system. To cure deafness or lameness is one thing; to restore an amputated ear or limb is another. If Dr. Newton had performed a surgical or evolutionary miracle of this sort, his pretensions to have procured the intercession of God would stagger our author, for the Bible record of the marvellous works of Christ and his apostles would be paralleled. They (p. 41) "made no distinction in cases." Indeed, Dr. Buckley would be unable to credit the New Testament miracles of this sort if they were unsupported by doctrines which, "applied to men's own needs and lives, . . . prove their divine origin by the radical and permanent changes which they make in character." He is also comforted by the reflection (p. 42) that "no account of failure on the part of Christ, or of the apostles after his ascension, to cure any case can be found. Neither is there a syllable concerning any relapse, or the danger of such a thing, . . . in the New Testament." But, as he affirms (p. 61) that "the credibility of the record concerning Christ's works is a question which cannot be raised by Christians, whether they hold the superstitions of the faith-healers or not," it is useless to discuss with him the imperfections of that record.

It would be equally futile to dispute the uncontested proposition (p. 43) that "none can demonstrate that God cannot work through second causes, bringing about results which, when they come, appear to be entirely natural, but which could not have come except through special providence, or in answer to prayer." This is advanced in the interest of "the Christian doctrine of answer to prayer" for the sick, "one of the most consoling privileges." "It would be a strange omission," continues Dr. Buckley, "if we were not entitled to pray for comfort, for spiritual help, for such graces as will render continued chastening unnecessary, and for recovery, when that which is desired is in harmony with the will of God." And it appears to us strange ratiocination by which (p. 44) "the Christian, in his personal religious experience, may believe that his prayer was the element that induced God to interfere with the course of nature and prolong life," and the Christian faith-healer may do no such thing; by which belief in faith-healing has a tendency (p. 45) "to produce an effeminate type of character which shrinks from pain," and "sets up false grounds for determining whether a person is or is not in the favor of God," and "opens the door to every superstition," while belief in answer to prayer for the sick is attended by none of these evils.

Dr. Buckley can hardly expect that all his readers will overlook his "strange omission" to discuss the efficacy and moral tendency of prayers to avert or interrupt droughts, floods, tempests, earthquakes, pestilence, and shipwrecks; whether, for example, the evangelist Moody "may, in his personal religious experience, believe that his prayer was the element that induced God" to keep the *Spree* from sinking, and is justified in citing this instance of answer to prayer in his revival meetings (as we understand he does). To some not irreverent minds these practices and pretensions seem as superstitious as that which Dr. Buckley so brands, viz. (p. 45), "opening the Bible at random, expecting the Lord so to influence their thoughts and minds that they can gather His will from the first passage they see"; or as his own making sickness the result of God's "chastening," in order to find a reasonable ground for begging Him to be merciful to the invalid. Neither more nor less superstitious

was the Rev. Cotton Mather's "Burnings bewailed: in a sermon, occasioned by the lamentable fire which was in Boston, October 2, 1711. In which the sins which provoke the Lord to kindle fires, are inquired into"; or the Rev. Thomas Prince's thanksgiving sermon at the South Church in Boston, August 24, 1749, on "The natural and moral government and agency of God in causing droughts and rains"; or the Rev. James Allen's several sermons, in 1679, of "Serious advice to delivered ones from sickness or any other dangers threatening death, how they ought to carry it, that their mercies may be continued, and after misery prevented." Indeed, we are very much of the opinion that Dr. Buckley's *argument* in this volume will do more to awaken scepticism among the orthodox than to rout the faith-healers. It would, we are sure, make very little impression on the Rev. A. S. Orne of Haverhill, Mass., formerly the city missionary, who heals by anointing with oil, laying on of hands, and prayer, and who, on the 17th of January last, lost an infant by pneumonia which did not prove amenable to this treatment. He obtained a diagnosis from a physician, but asked for no prescription, saying (as the Associated Press reported): "I am not of this world, and I try to follow the orders of the Scriptures; and as God did not heal my child, I believe He has another object in taking her away."

Russia under Alexander III., and in the Preceding Period. By H. von Samson-Himmelstierna. Translated by J. Morrison, M.A. Edited, with explanatory notes and introduction, by Felix Volkhovsky. Macmillan.

THE average reader is likely to derive more bewilderment than profit from the curiously mixed contents of this volume, whose peculiarities begin on the title-page, adorned with the name of the translator in large type, that of the editor and introducer in still larger type, and that of the author in letters which would justify the public in demanding that a pocket-microscope be thrown in with each copy. To begin with the introduction, out of respect to the prominence given to the name of the editor, we gather from it that Mr. Volkhovsky either wholly rejects, or three-quarters discredits, the greater part of the work he patronizes in such flaunting style. We notice two misstatements of fact, the first unimportant, the second calculated to mislead grossly as to the Russian Government's motives and methods. Ivanoff's great picture of "Christ Coming to be Baptized," which every visitor to Russia should make a point of seeing because of the innumerable references to it, must be looked for in the Rumyantsoff Museum at Moscow, not, as stated, in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg. The statement that "the Russian people are allowed to be informed now and then, *post factum*, . . . at what reviews the Tsar has made his appearance," is intended to strengthen the erroneous notion, which already prevails abroad, that the public does not know when and where to see the Emperor, that secrecy is preserved as to his movements, out of fear, and the like. As a matter of fact, not only is the Emperor's presence frequently announced in the newspapers beforehand, in cases where the occurrence is isolated, not of periodical recurrence, but public notice is given of the regular court festivities, in the form of orders as to uniforms, entrances to the Palace, and so forth, for the guidance of courtiers; and the annual repetition of the reviews mentioned is so thoroughly well under-

stood as taking place on fixed days that no notice of any sort is needed to post the public as to particulars, since even the dress required is known.

The bulk of the introduction is too long and complicated, with its truths and half-truths produced by one-sided views, to permit of detailed examination here. Something of the same elements pervades the notes in the appendix furnished by the editor. For example, the note about the "May fires" of 1862 would seem to deny that there was arson, or that revolutionists had a hand in them. It should have been stated, in justice, that all the persons who lived at points visited by these fires believe in arson to this day, and that if, out of the two hypotheses upheld by different persons nearly concerned, that which attributes them to the action of Poles sent into residence in the distant Russian towns thus afflicted, be rejected, the other hypothesis, that Russians set the fires, must be accepted—which is equivalent to proving that revolutionists or abnormal citizens, however called, were the authors.

The chapters of the main work which purport to describe the characters of the Emperor, Empress, and other members of the Imperial family are interesting. In their general outlines there is much justice and truth, mingled with various misapprehensions and prejudices such as we might expect from a German like Von Samson-Himmelstierna, of the ultra-patriotic type. It is positively comical, however, to find him coupling Count L. N. Tolstoi with Pobye-donostseff and Countess Antoinette Bludoff in religion. The author should have notified us, by the way, that Countess A. Bludoff is dead, and he might have furnished some spicy details of her fanatical power had he been perfectly acquainted with his subject. His greatest departure from accepted standards is when he explains the position of the Grand Duke Vladimir's wife, Marie Pavlovna. Naturally, he takes up the cudgels for her, on account of her German birth and sympathies. But when he goes so far as to say that "she is persecuted and slandered because she is a Lutheran, and has remained so," and so on, he fires absurdly wide of the mark, not only as to the fiction of her persecution and slander, but also as to the reason for her unpopularity. His praise of another Grand Duchess of German birth is also somewhat amazing to the initiated.

All this part of the book is, nevertheless, very interesting, though hardly important. We may take exceptions to such statements as that Russia "is a country which has already become effete," and so forth (p. 85), in face of the undeveloped vigor of mind and morals of the masses; and it is hardly permissible to leave uncorrected the assertion, in support of Pobye-donostseff's intolerance, that "in the summer of 1888 he celebrated the twenty-fifth year of jubilee of the conversion of the Uniats (the Orthodox Christians who recognize the headship of the Pope), with all the pomp of Church and State." What was celebrated at the time mentioned was the conversion of the Russians to Christianity in the tenth century. These few instances will serve to show what measure of confidence we may place in the author's statements of fact, and his freedom from, or permeation with, national prejudice. The chapter on Finland is valuable only as a concise historical account. If it proves anything, it proves that Finland has no reason to yearn for a renewal of the old relations with Sweden. It affords no help in understanding the present situation or problems.

The remainder of the book is the most authoritative, interesting, and valuable portion,

being derived from Russian sources, with but few interpolations in the translation by the German author. Nevertheless, it is likely to seem heavy, remote, incomprehensible to the general public, which will with difficulty follow the careers of the prominent Russians therein treated, unless considerable preliminary knowledge is taken for granted. For the special, careful, well-prepared reader, however, there is much to interest and instruct in the chapters on the Aksakoff family, Kosheleff, Kravtsevsky, and Byelinsky, and they afford sufficient excuse for the publication of this rather unpleasantly fragmentary selection from Von Samson-Himmelstierna's work. It is a pity that, with such handsome paper, type, and binding, more pains had not been taken with the proof-reading, not only of the Russian and other foreign names, but with the English, which now annoys with such mistakes as "abrogated to himself the right," "alumni" (for *alumni*), and the like.

First Days amongst the Contrabands. By Elizabeth Hyde Botume. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1893.

WE have here a very interesting book, and one almost unique in its intimate reproduction of one of the most significant and pathetic aspects of the civil war. Mr. Higginson's account of his experience with his black regiment is more akin to it than any other writing, but whereas that dealt principally with the men who had just escaped from slavery, this deals principally with the women and children, and with the first attempts to educate them. The book is very different, again, from Mr. Higginson's in its lack of literary form. But this defect has its excellence: without art or artifice we are brought as close as possible to the circumstances of the shifting time; the incoherency and scrappiness of the narrative give the impression that we are reading extracts from a contemporary journal, and not the uncertain recollections of another generation. That the arrangement of the matter is topical and not chronological has much to do with the incoherency and the frequent repetition. But it is the narrative of a lady who was one of the first teachers on the South Carolina coast, who has been for many years at her post, who is a keen observer and a good reporter, and who, best of all, brought to her task a quick and noble sympathy with the people she was trying to befriend. She had been in the South before the war, and had made herself acquainted with the true character of slavery. She does not believe that the slaves were so contented with their slavery as do some others who are not so well acquainted with the facts. She has several stories illustrating the intense interest of the slaves in the fortunes of the war—one of a waiting-maid whose master used to spell the war-news to his wife so that the girl might not understand; but she remembered the letters, and hastened to spell them to an uncle who could interpret them. Asked by Miss Botume if she could still do this, she said, "Try me, missis; try me an' see," and Miss Botume spelled a long sentence as rapidly as possible, and the girl repeated the letters without a mistake. In her first chapter our author speaks of receiving 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' in Central Georgia in 1850—the completed book. But it was not published till March 20, 1852.

Nothing could have been more grotesque than the appearance of the negro refugees as they came flocking into the Union lines. A huge negress was seen striding along with her homi-

ny-pot, in which was a live chicken, poised on her head; one child on her back, under each arm a smaller one, her apron tucked up and full of clothing, a little dog running by her side, and a pig trotting on before. But the humors of the contrabands' speech were those which had for Miss Botume the greatest fascination. The use of the nominative for the accusative, and the accusative for the nominative, was the most common trick: "Her b'longs to us now, and us b'longs to she," said one of the girls, describing her relation and that of her companions to the new teacher. "Him's feminine, Miss Ellen! Him's a gal!" said another, trying to parse *sister*. Then, too, there were the humors of ignorance and of the delight in knowledge. To the question, "Who wrote the Commandments?" one answer was, "Uncle Sam," another "Gen. Saxby" (*i. e.*, Saxton), and a third, "Columbus." The question, "Who is Jesus Christ?" brought similar replies: "Gen. Saxby, sar," and "Him's Massa Linkum." After Lincoln's death one of the leaders of the prayer-meeting, whose prayer in its perfect rhythmical flow was like a solemn chant, after calling the dead President by every tender and endearing name, ended with, "Massa Linkum! our 'dored Redeemer an' Saviour an' Frien! Amen!"

There are more tears in these things than there is laughter, though there is much of that. There is much comfort in them for aged abolitionists, now getting few upon the earth. If they have ever doubted that the people for whom they fought the good fight were worthy of their labor and fidelity, they would here be reassured. The desire of the slaves to learn, their feeling that the alphabet was a talisman that would open for them every door, has often been reported, and it has various illustrations here. None were too old to try to learn, though some tried in vain. One charming instance is of a father and mother, "great, stalwart creatures, black as ink," in one class and their three children in the next higher, these scandalized by their parents' ignorance, and the parents delighted with their children's marvellous attainments. One little fellow had been with Jefferson Davis; Mrs. Davis had made much of him and he had been her children's playfellow. She herself gave him into Gen. Saxton's care when the bad cause was lost. He was always loyal to her and her husband. He apologized for his scanty outfit: "Her couldn't do any better"; and when the little contrabands were singing their resolve to "hang Jeff Davis to a sour-apple tree," he dashed in among them with the cry, "Three cheers for Jefferson Davis!" Miss Botume has several stories of the devotion of the women to their erring sisters, which are deeply affecting. She had refused to help one of these, and, insisting that she must keep her word, was met with, "That's so, ma'am. You knows best. You *mus'* be right, fur you'na kin read the Bible, and so you must know best. But I has now to go to the gal, poor creeter!" She went, but not without the necessities for which she came. One picture will be apt to haunt the reader's memory—that of three women sitting side by side upon the floor making their laps a bed for a dying girl. The patience in sickness was so remarkable that it seemed like apathy.

The general impression of the colored people given by Miss Botume is most interesting and engaging. Those of the islands about Hilton Head were of the lowest grade in point of civilization; hence a more absolute simplicity, which the friction of the reconstruction period did much to wear away. But whatever has

been lost, the gains have been incalculably great. The statistics of Miss Botume's last page are almost too good to believe. They are those of Dr. Beard, the Secretary of the American Missionary Association. Where, twenty-seven years ago, no colored child was legally permitted to read, now there are 25,530 schools in which 2,250,000 have learned to read and most of them to write; there are 238,000 pupils in the colored schools and 20,000 colored teachers. There are 150 schools for advanced education, and 7 colleges administered by colored presidents and faculties; and of the presidents 3 were formerly slaves. There are 154 colored editors, 250 lawyers, 740 physicians, and there are 247 colored students now educating themselves in European universities. Still more remarkable is the industrial development. Here are the elements which are very gradually, but surely, solving the race problem of the South. In the perspective of another century the wonder may possibly be that so much was accomplished in so short a time.

Carriage Driving in and near unto Western Massachusetts. By Clark W. Bryan. Springfield, Mass.: C. W. Bryan & Co.

THE cover of this little volume is too dainty for its proper use, which is to fit the pocket of the author's imitators. We do not mean that his chapters, originally letters to the Springfield *Republican*, cannot be read with pleasure in and for themselves; they can be, they have been by thousands, especially those in exile from the home of their childhood. Still, Mr. Bryan makes no pretension to literary art or gift of graphic description, and in his homely and racy way simply aims to report the drives which he and his wife have undertaken from Springfield as a centre, and in the space of four or five days. Brattleboro, Vt., on the north, and Hudson, N. Y., on the west, mark the longest radii of these excursions, while Worcester is all but reached on the east. From the "heart of the Commonwealth," then, to the New York border, there is very little of Massachusetts which Mr. Bryan has not driven over or seen from near or far; and while the Berkshire Hills and the valley of the Connecticut receive the most attention, a glimpse is afforded of the rare scenic beauty of Worcester County, which yet awaits its *sacerdotes*. Bashpish Falls, in the extreme southwestern corner of the State, is almost the only significant natural feature of this tract which Mr. Bryan leaves unvisited and even unmentioned; but since he now and again crosses the border, we marvel that he has never essayed the incomparable drive from Williamstown to Bennington, Vt., especially in the height of the autumn coloring, with a return trip over Florida Mountain and down the Deerfield Valley. He has, indeed, driven up this valley, proceeding from Greenfield through the little wilderness of the divide to Shelburne Falls, and so on to North Adams, and has felt the charm of the route without being able to convey a vivid impression of it. He ought to fit himself, by taking it in reverse, to give an opinion as to which is the more delightful—the eastward or the westward journey. We remark that this kind of observation is conspicuously absent from his diaries, though he frequently retraces his course. So far as our own wanderings have coincided with his, we find him going into raptures at the proper places, as, for example, over the romantic drive along the Farmington River from Otis to New Boston.

It is pleasant to see the unconscious testimony of these pages to the native love of New Eng-

land—not that New England (the Puritan nursing) which Increase Mather, Judge Sewall, and their colleagues in the overthrow of Andros so revered as time's noblest offspring among human governments; but first the face of the land, its mountains and its streams, and the very air which stimulates the mind to independence and invention, and then the people, kindly and helpful—the "folks." Mr. Bryan is such a lover, and it hurts him to view the deserted towns only too abundant along the road, victims of "the logic of events," he concludes, meaning for the most part the logic of the locomotive. "The railway up and down the Connecticut River valley," he says on p. 157, "has siphoned the life blood of the village over the hills and far away to the eastward"; and he quotes the rustic who thought it queer he could get only \$150 for a hillside pasturage when "a picture painter down in Springfield got \$275 for a picture of two or three old beech trees which have been there ever since Becket was first discovered." He devotes a whole chapter to Washington, the once prosperous birthplace of the late Governor Morgan of New York, who left in his will \$5,000 for the care of a church already a prey to the elements, while no remnant of the congregation is to be found capable of undertaking the trust. The example shows that men should not leave such benefactions to their wills. The library and the academy are the stakes which well-to-do absentees, turning fondly homewards in thought or in person, can effectively drive to stay the land-slide of emigration, as Mr. Bryan shows at more than one point. Even without these, one town at least contrives to hold its own. "There would seem to be here [in Hawley]," says our tourist, "an honorable exception to the old rule of country life, when all the young people leave home to go out West and grow up with the country, or to seek New England city life, if the evidence to the contrary which the well-filled church on Sabbath morning presented, may be relied upon."

No thoughtful observer can doubt that New England's decays are in time destined to be repaired, if only by the summer resident, and Mr. Bryan's book is a practical guide to the seeker after "abandoned farms" and sites glorious in their prospect and enviable for their healthfulness. It is not necessary, in fact, to go so far as Vermont or New Hampshire. For this reason we regret that Mr. Bryan, over and above or in place of the capricious illustrations, did not furnish route-maps for each of his jaunts. But it is evident that he does not yet appreciate the maps of the new survey of Massachusetts, which, cut up in sections for folding in the pocket, show all the roads and relieve the traveller from the necessity of inquiring his way. He might, as he is his own publisher, offer three or four of these sheets thus prepared in connection with his little volume. In conclusion, it need hardly be said that he has written as much for the benefit of the pedestrian or the wheelman as of the carriage-driver.

Materials for the Study of Private Law in Old Japan. Part I., Introduction. Part II., Contract; Civil Customs. Part III., Contract; Legal Precedents; section I., Money Loans; Letting and Hiring. Part V., Property; Civil Customs. By John Henry Wigmore. Tokyo, 1892.

New Codes and Old Customs. By J. H. W. Reprinted from the *Japan Mail*.

THIS contribution by Prof. Wigmore to the study of Japanese institutions is highly inte-

resting and important. The value to comparative legal science of a careful investigation of the customary law of such a country as Japan, with its ancient and isolated civilization, is beyond question. And the volumes before us, the subject of which, hitherto almost wholly unexplored, is the private laws and customs of Old Japan, give ample evidence of the laborious and scholarly completeness with which the work has been done. These volumes, which include nearly a thousand pages of the Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Japan, are to be supplemented by two others now in preparation by the same author, dealing with the law of contract (commercial customs), of persons (civil customs), and four additional volumes of legal precedents. The sources are original documents in the Japanese Department of Justice, discovered by Prof. Wigmore himself, almost by accident. Some of these are official records of actual decisions of the judges. Translations of many of these decisions, which in their cautious regard for precedent are worthy of an English court of common law, make up the volume of Precedents. The indifference of native scholars, in this era of imported codes and European ideas, to the study of their inherited institutions, made it doubly important that the work should be done before the materials became still more inaccessible.

We are told that a well-known Japanese law lecturer is in the habit of dismissing the whole subject of the customary law as a "laughing-stock." And this in a country which, from the end of the sixteenth century, had a registry of land titles; where bills of exchange were known from the thirteenth century, and banks, with deposits, checks, and even a clearing-house, from the middle of the seventeenth; where regular bankruptcy proceedings have long been provided by law; and where a rice-exchange, with dealings in "futures" carried on in the face of an impotent "anti-option" law, has for two hundred years anticipated some of our modern methods of business, and legislation as well.

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Barrie, J. M. *An Auld Licht Maunse, and Other Sketches*. John Knox & Co. \$1.
Bede, P., and Crehore, A. C. *Alternating Currents: An Analytical and Graphical Treatment for Students and Engineers*. London: Whittaker; New York: W. J. Johnston Co. \$2.50.
Berestford-Webb, H. S. *Schiller's Der Neffe als Onkel*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.

Bidgood, John. *A Course of Practical Elementary Biology*. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
Black, W. *Sunrise: A Story of These Times*. New and revised ed. Harpers. 90 cents.
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Goumy, Edouard. *Les Latins*. Paris: Hachette.
Hall, Prof. W. S. *Mensuration*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Holden, Rev. H. A. *Plutarch's Life of Demosthenes*. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. \$1.25.
Lytton, E. B. *The Caxtons*. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$3.
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Roberts, R. D. *The Earth's History: An Introduction to Modern Geology*. (University Extension Manuals.) Scribners. \$1.50.
Robinson's New Rudiments of Arithmetic. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Sergeant, Adeline. *Christine*. Tait, Sons & Co. \$1.
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The Annual American Catalogue, 1892. Publisher's Weekly.
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[Educational continued from page ii.]

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Market value of Securities over Ledger Cost.....	\$897,685 47	
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